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ABSTRACT

The conference provided a forum for practitioners and researchers to discuss practices, concepts, evaluation and research studies in order to improve practice in adult education. Included are the following: "Realizing the Potential for Grounded Theory in Adult Education" (Babchuk et al.); "Behind the Smoke and Mirrors of Reorganization" (Benson); "A Blueprint for Transitioning the Returning Adult into Higher Education" (Bishop); "Toward a Model for Evaluating Commercially Prepared Critical Thinking Materials for Adult Literacy" (Blodgett); "Case Studies of Civic Education" (Boggs et al.); "Application of Adult Education Principles to Workplace Literacy Program Descriptions" (Chaney); "The Influence of Self-Other Relationships in Constructivist Approaches to Adult Learning" (Dirkx, Deems); "Styles and Effectiveness of Managing Conflict" (Donovan); "Development of Learned Ethical Behavior among Professional Nurses" (Elkins); "Teaching from the Pulpit" (Ellis); "Codes of Ethics and the Reflective Practitioner" (Ellis, McElhinney); "Linking Research and Practice" (Freer et al.); "Gender and Home-Based Work" (Furry, Radhakrishna); "On the Outside Looking In: Women Doctoral Students and Mentoring Relationships" (Garofolo, Hansman-Ferguson); "Helping Adults Manage Math Anxiety" (Gammage); "Implications of Situated Cognition and Authentic Activity on Adults Learning to Write" (Hansman-Ferguson); "Study of Highly Skilled Field Service Technicians Using a Grounded Theory Approach" (Huber); "'Mix and Weight' Exploring Dimensions of Choice and Responsibility in an Adult Learning Classroom" (Jha, Courtney); "Evaluating an Agricultural Innovation" (King, Rollins); "Paradox of Linking Theory to Practice" (Kolenbrander, Newhouse); "Employment and Career Outcomes of Adult Learners and the Outcomes Assessment Process" (Merrill); "Preparing Program Volunteers to Be Problem Solvers" (Miller, Chen); "Defining Scholarship" (Miller, Sandmann); "Effects of Inservice Training on Part-Time Continuing Education Faculty" (Nolte, Spikes, III); "Public Affairs Leadership" (Rossing et al.); "Strategies for the Design and Delivery of Workplace Education" (Schultz); "Eduard Lindeman's Challenge to Adult Education" (Thornton, Fisher); "Case Studies of Voluntary Career Transition of Community College Students" (Vanderveen); "Examining the Concept of 'Multiple Communities' and Their Impact on Adult Learners" (Wood, Jr.); and "Why Isn't Needs Assessing More Useful to Practitioners?" (Wood, Jr.). Most papers contain references. (YLB)

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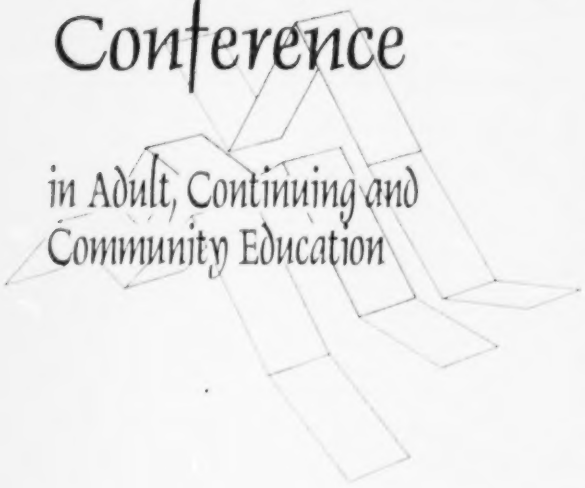
Proceedings of the Thirteenth Annual

Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference

in Adult, Continuing and Community Education



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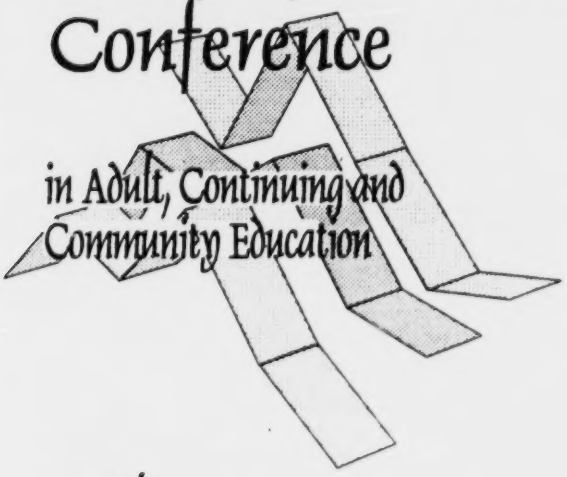

October 13 - 15, 1994

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UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN MILWAUKEE

Department of Administration Leadership
School of Education

UWM

Dear Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference Participants:

Welcome to the Thirteenth Annual Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference in Adult, Continuing and Community Education, hosted by the University of Wisconsin - Milwaukee at the Midway Airport Hotel.

This conference was developed in the early 1980's by researchers and practitioners from Midwestern universities with graduate programs in adult education and from professional associations to which adult, continuing, and community educators belonged. Since its fledgling beginnings, the conference has grown in the number of proposals submitted, the total number of papers presented, the number of students presenting, the geographic area from which participants are drawn, and the number of conference participants. To accommodate an increasing number of quality papers, an additional series of concurrent sessions has been added to this conference.

No conference of this sort would be possible without the work of a regional steering committee, a local planning committee, those persons submitting proposals and papers, and the many volunteers who have performed countless tasks necessary to the success of the conference. Nor would the conference be possible without the financial support of the sponsors and in particular the host institution.

We are pleased to invite you to participate in all aspects of the conference: visits to local programs prior to and following the conference, the general session, the luncheons, the concurrent sessions, and the receptions. In this volume we provide copies of all of the papers being presented, nearly half of which were developed while the presenters were graduate students.

As you attend the session, greet colleagues and friends, and reflect on the various papers and presentations, we hope you are encouraged to grow professionally in your own research and practice in adult, continuing, and community education.

Sincerely,

Larry J. Martin
Larry Martin
Program Chair

James Fisher
Conference Chair

Enderis Hall • PO Box 413 • Milwaukee, WI 53201-0413

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MISSION STATEMENT

MIDWEST RESEARCH-TO-PRACTICE CONFERENCE

IN ADULT, CONTINUING AND COMMUNITY EDUCATION

The conference provides a forum for practitioners and researchers to discuss practices, concepts, evaluation, and research studies in order to improve practice in Adult Education. It facilitates dialogue and the initiation and pursuit of projects among individuals and groups working in the various fields of Adult Education. Through such discussion and collaboration participants contribute toward the realization of a more humane and just society through lifelong learning.

Prepared on behalf of the Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference Steering Committee by Boyd Rossing, May 28, 1991.

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Department of Administrative Leadership
School of Education - Outreach
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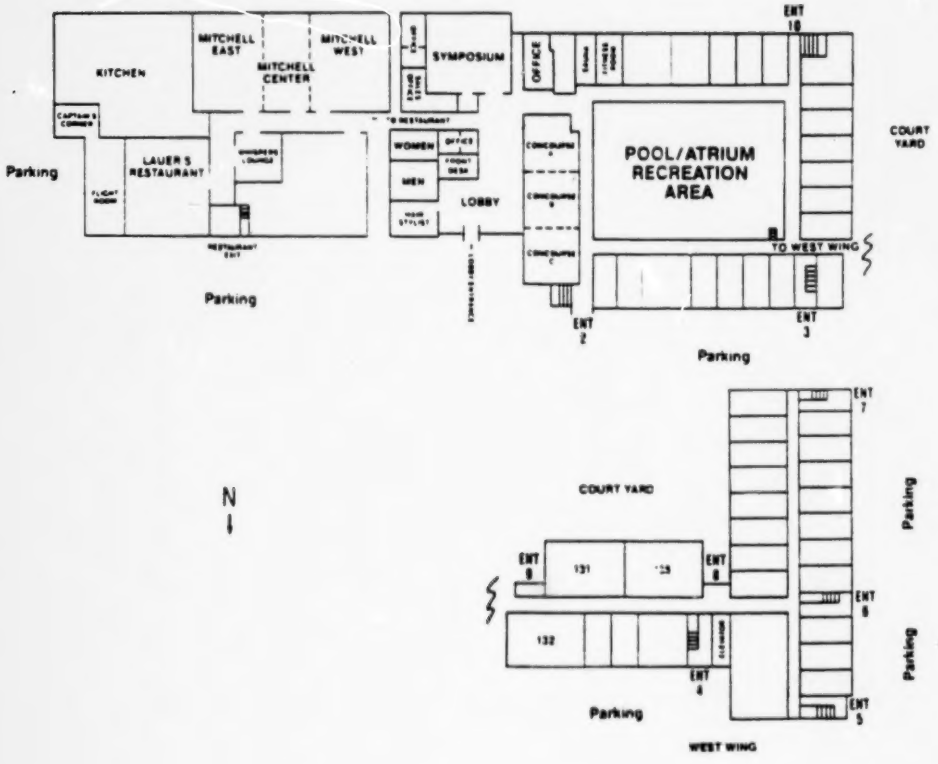

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SCHEDULE

1994 MIDWEST RESEARCH-TO-PRACTICE CONFERENCE IN ADULT, COMMUNITY, AND CONTINUING EDUCATION

THURSDAY, OCTOBER 13

1:30 - 5:00 PM	PRE-CONFERENCE TOURS	
6:00 - 9:00 PM	CONFERENCE REGISTRATION	
7:00 - 9:00 PM	HOSPITALITY ROOM	Mitchell West

FRIDAY, OCTOBER 14

8:00 - 8:30 AM CONFERENCE REGISTRATION, HOSPITALITY

8:30 - 10:15 AM GENERAL SESSIONS Symposium Room

8:30 - Welcome and Announcements
9:00 - Keynote Address, Jack Mezirow
"Transformation Theory: Implications for Practice and Research"
9:45 - Reactor Panel
Dr. Barbara Daley
Marquette University
Dept. of Continuing Education
Dr. Elizabeth Hayes
University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee
Dept. of Continuing & Vocational Education

10:15 - 10:45AM BREAK

10:45 - 11:45AM CONCURRENT SESSIONS NO. 1

W.A. Babchuck, S. Courtney, & L.R. Jha Room 132
Realizing the Potential for Grounded Theory in Adult Education: New Directions for Research and Practice

C.S. Blodgett — Concourse A
Critical Thinking Instruction in Adult Basic Education: An Examination of Approaches in Commercially-Prepared Curricular Materials

S.G. Elkins — Concourse C
The Development of Learned Ethical Behavior Among Professional Nurses

B.G. Ludwig & R.K. Barrick — Room 131
Internationalizing Extension: A Delphi Study

L.S. Vanderveen — Concourse B
Case Studies of Voluntary Mid-Life Career Transition of Community College Students

G. Wood — Room 135
Examining the Concept of Multiple Communities and How They Affect an Adult's Learning

12:00 - 1:15 PM LUNCHEON Mitchell West & Center

Dave Edyburn, UWM School of Education
"Utilizing Computer Technology to Enhance Research and Practice in Adult and Continuing Education"

1:30 - 2:30 CONCURRENT SESSIONS NO. 2

D.L. Boggs, T. Rocco, & S. Spangler — Room 135
Case Studies of Adult Civic Education: A Framework for Understanding Older Adult Behavior

T.J. Ellis & J.H. McElhinney — Room 131
Codes of Ethics and the Reflective Practitioner: An Interdisciplinary Code of Ethics for Adult Education Revisited

T. Gammage — Concourse A
Helping Adults Manage Math Anxiety

L.R. Jha & S. Courtney — Concourse C
Mix and Weight: Exploring Dimensions of Choice and Responsibility in the Adult Learning Classroom

H.S. Merrill — Room 132
Employment and Career Outcomes of Adult Learners and the Outcomes Assessment Process

B.E. Rossing, G.A. Campbell, & V.G.Dhanakumar — Concourse B
The Rural Leadership Paradox: Socio-Economic, Education and Demographics Dimensions

2:30 - 2:45 PM BREAK

2:45 - 3:45 PM CONCURRENT SESSIONS NO. 3

M.A. Benson — Concourse A
Behind the Smoke and Mirrors of Reorganization: A Study of the Psychosocial Reaction and Response of Managers to Reorganization

C.A. Hansman-Ferguson — Concourse B
The Implications of Situated Cognition and Authentic Activity on Adults Learning to Write

R.N. King & T.J. Rollins — Room 131
Evaluating an Agricultural Innovation: Implications for Educational Programming

R.W. Kolenbrander & J.K. Newhouse — Room 135
The Paradox of Linking Theory to Practice

R. Morris, J. McIntyre, & M. Tennant — Room 132
Exploring the Vocational Intent of Participants in Adult Community Education

D.E. Schultz — Concourse C
Workplace Education: Program Implementation by the Workforce

3:45 - 4:00 PM BREAK

4:00 - 5:00 PM CONCURRENT SESSIONS NO. 4

J.M. Dirkx & S. Prengler Room 132
A Living Amoeba or a Textbook Topic?
onceptions of Integrated Theme-based
Instruction in Adult Education

T.J. Ellis Concourse C
Teaching from the Pulpit: An Exploratory
Study of the Relationship Between Adult
Learning Theory and Preaching Literature

P. Garafolo & C.A. Hansman-Ferguson Concourse A
On the Outside Looking In:
Women Doctoral Students and
Mentoring Relationships

L.E. Miller & L.R. Sandmann Room 135
Defining Scholarship: Implications for Adult Education

G.W. West Concourse B
Learning Organizations: A Critical Review

D.L. Whitson Room 131
Connections: Providing Information Access for Outreach
Education

5:30 - 6:30 PM RECEPTION AT THE MILLER TOUR CENTER
4251 West State Street

DINNER ON YOUR OWN

SATURDAY, OCTOBER 15

7:30 - 8:30 AM STEERING COMMITTEE Private Dining Room

8:00 - 8:30 AM REGISTRATION, HOSPITALITY

8:30 - 9:30 AM CONCURRENT SESSION NO. 5

B. Chaney Room 132
Application of Adult Education Principles to Workplace Literacy Program Descriptions

J.M. Dirkx & T.D. Laswell Concourse B
The Influence of Self-Other Relationships in Constructivist Approaches to Adult Learning

H.S. Merrill Room 135
Integrating Perspectives from Life Span Development, Adult Development and Career Development Literature

K.L. Miller Concourse A
Examining a Transformative Model: Recycling Divergent Cultural Patterns in Multicultural Education Training Practices

C.R. Oaklief Room 131
Practitioner Perceptions of Success and Failure in the Planning of Adult Education Programs

9:30 - 9:45 AM BREAK

9:45 - 10:45 AM CONCURRENT SESSION NO. 6

L. Bishop Room 131
A Blueprint for Transitioning the Returning Adult into Higher Education

M. Donovan Concourse C
Academic Deans and Conflict Management: The Relationship between Perceived Styles and Effectiveness of Managing Conflict

D. Duncan & D. Kirby Concourse A
A Study of Control in Self-Directed Learning

T.R. Ferro — Room 132
Improving the Quality of Continuing Higher Educators' Leadership Role in Economic and Community Development Planning

R.J. Huber — Room 135
A Study of Highly-Skilled Field Service Technicians Using a Grounded Theory Approach: Implications for Technical Curricula

L.E. Miller & S. Chen — Concourse B
Preparing Program Volunteers to be Problem Solvers

10:45 - 11:00AM BREAK

11:00 - 12:00 CONCURRENT SESSION NO. 7

S. Courtney & K. Speck — Concourse A
Crossing the Rubicon - From Motivation to Volition in Adult Learning

K. Freer — Concourse C
Linking Research to Practice: Characteristics of Adult Education Research as Reported at the Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference, 1981-1993.

M.M. Furry & R.B. Radhakrishna — Room 131
Gender and Home-Based Work: Research to Support Extension Programming

J.L. Nolte & W.F. Spikes — Room 135
Effects of Inservice Training on Part-Time Continuing Education Faculty

J. Thornton & J.C. Fisher — Room 132
Teaching the Tools of Democracy: Eduard Lindeman and the Free Speech Movement

G. Wood — Concourse B
Why Isn't Needs Assessing More Useful to Practitioners?

12:15 - 1:30 PM LUNCHEON AND PANEL

Topic:	"Critical Reflections on Urban Practice: Implications for Research"
Moderator:	Tony Baez; Faculty Associate, UW-M Center for Urban Community Development
Panelists:	• Edie Adekunle-Wilson; Assistant Professor, UW-Extension • John Donovan; Training Consultant, Donovan Associates • Eva Mack; ABE Instructior, Milwaukee Area Technical College & La Casa de Esperanza

1:30 PM ADJOURNMENT

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REALIZING THE POTENTIAL FOR GROUNDED THEORY IN ADULT EDUCATION: NEW DIRECTIONS FOR RESEARCH AND PRACTICE

Wayne A. Babchuk, Sean Courtney, LaDeane R. Jha

ABSTRACT

This paper explores the potential of grounded theory as a viable research strategy which can be used to bridge the gap between theory and practice in adult education across a wide range of problem areas and practice settings. We argue that among qualitatively-based approaches, grounded theory is well-suited for this task for a number of reasons which relate to both its epistemological foundations and the procedural guidelines it advocates. Within this context, the history and use of this methodology as it relates to adult education is addressed, and systematic guidelines or a "procedural checklist" is provided. Discussion of relevant citations are incorporated into our analysis and potential broad-based areas of inquiry are identified which appear to us to be particularly amenable to this approach. Areas of application include: (1) adult learning and motivation, (2) program planning and evaluation, and (3) adult literacy.

INTRODUCTION

The use of qualitative research methodologies appears to be gaining favor among scholars and practitioners of adult education, reflective of a broader trend within other forms of social and educational inquiry. One such methodology--grounded theory--has not been an exception to this trend, yet its potential for adult education research remains largely untapped. The purpose of this study is to examine this potential through analysis of literature spanning several disciplines with a particular emphasis on adult education, as well as through discourse pertaining to our own hands-on experience with this method. We began with an historical overview of grounded theory as it relates to its origin in sociology and briefly trace its ongoing development in this field, as well as in other disciplines such as health care, education, and adult education. We then narrow our focus to a discussion of the importance of this methodology for research and practice in adult education, followed by a set of guidelines which may be useful to scholars and practitioners interested in using this approach. Finally, we suggest potential avenues of research which may be particularly well-suited for studies of this nature.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

Grounded theory is a qualitative research methodology which emphasizes the generation of theory which is "grounded" in the data. Formally introduced by Glaser and Strauss (1967) in The Discovery of Grounded Theory, this framework derives its theoretical underpinnings from the thrust of American Pragmatism, Symbolic Interactionalism, and research on the sociology of work conducted at the University of Chicago beginning in the 1920's (Corbin and Strauss, 1990; Strauss, 1987; Strauss and Corbin, 1990). While these traditions were undoubtedly important to the development of grounded theory, early formulations of this methodology also appeared to be strongly driven by a polemic against Merton (1949) and more traditional modes of inquiry which focused on the "grounded modifying of theory, not grounded generating of theory" (Glaser and Strauss, 1967, p. 2).

In the years following this seminal work, grounded theory began to gain momentum and become entrenched as a viable research methodology among qualitatively-oriented scholars (Bogdan and Biklen, 1992). In terms of a historical overview of this tradition, subsequent research can be grouped into two major overarching categories or foci. The first includes works which deal with theoretical issues relating to grounded theory as well as the specifics of this methodology and is well-represented by a series of works authored by Glaser and Strauss and Juliet Corbin (Corbin 1986; Corbin and Strauss, 1967; Glaser, 1978; Strauss and Corbin, 1990, 1994). This category also includes work on grounded theory methods and techniques by other researchers (see for example, Hutchinson, 1986,

or Stern, 1985), as well as critiques of this methodology (Altrichter and Posch, 1989; Smith and Poland, 1976).

The second overarching category in terms of historical analysis of this tradition encompasses over twenty-five years of research which has utilized grounded theory methodology in whole or in part across a wide range of problem areas and practice settings. This category can be further subdivided into several dominant areas of inquiry according to major disciplines or research traditions. Not surprisingly, one such area is in the field of sociology where grounded theory continues to be used in the study of work organizations (Martin and Turner, 1986) as well as a broad range of other topics. Another major area of investigation is in the field of health care where a plethora of grounded theory studies have been undertaken primarily oriented towards nurses in both practice (Chenitz and Swanson, 1986; Stern, 1986) and educational (Thompson, 1992) settings. This line of research dates to the inception of grounded theory given that The Discovery emerged from Glaser and Strauss' collaborative research while they were teaching in the doctoral program in nursing at the University of California-San Francisco (Stern, Allen, and Moxley, 1982).

A third area centers on the use of grounded theory in educational settings, including those which specifically focus on the adult learner. In this domain, grounded theory has been utilized to study academic change (Conrad, 1978), reference group socialization of secondary school teachers, (Gehrke, 1981) teacher burnout and stress (Blase, 1982), instructional innovation in higher education (Kozma, 1985), decision-making strategies of elementary school teachers (Parker and Gehrke, 1986), "thesis blocking" among graduate students (Rennie and Brewer, 1987), adaptive strategies of expert teachers (Campbell, 1987), the role of departmental chairpersons in enhancing faculty research (Creswell and Brown, 1992), life in an ABE/GED classroom (Courtney, Jha, and Babchuk, 1994), and many other topics (for a more complete list of references see Courtney, Babchuk, and Jha, in preparation).

However, an examination of these studies reveals that relatively few researchers have closely followed the guidelines of grounded theory as outlined by Glaser, Strauss, and Corbin. Their use of this methodology ranges from "picking and choosing" specific aspects that they find appealing or convenient given the nature of their research, to utilizing most but not all of the recommended steps and techniques (Courtney, Jha, and Babchuk, 1994), to simply stopping short of a full-blown theory and offering themes and hypothesis in its place which beg further research (Creswell and Brown, 1992; Thompson, 1992). On one hand, the tendency to adapt this methodology to researchers' needs may reflect the somewhat ambiguous nature of the guidelines of grounded theory, which not only appear to be confusing as outlined by the founders of this methodology, but also seem to fluctuate across publications. On the other hand, the flexibility of application by researchers who have used this methodology may also be seen as one of its strengths, a point we will return to in the next section.

IMPORTANCE FOR RESEARCH TO PRACTICE

In spite of its increasing use across disciplines, the potential of grounded theory for research and practice in adult and continuing education has not yet been realized nor has this methodology been widely incorporated into the research literature of the discipline. Few attempts have been made to assess grounded theory with regard to its overall utility as a research tool in adult education nor to specifically outline its potential for restructuring practice settings. A literature search spanning the last 15 years of the Adult Education Quarterly (AEQ), and the Proceedings from the Adult Education Research Conference (AERC) from the same period (1979-1994), reveals that relatively few researchers have utilized grounded theory as either their primary research methodology or in conjunction with other research tools. Among those that have, few appear to have closely followed the procedures and techniques outlined by Glaser, Strauss, and Corbin, as discussed in the previous section.

We believe, however, that there are several important and interrelated factors which make this a particularly appealing methodology to be embraced by both scholars and practitioners of adult education which serve to underscore its potential for bridging the gap between research and practice. First, as alluded to above, grounded theory has become an increasingly popular methodology in the social sciences and in all forms of educational inquiry partly because it has proven to be amenable to a wide range of research issues while at the same time being especially resilient to criticism. Second, unlike many other forms of qualitative research, grounded theory adheres to a set of relatively straight-forward, systematic, and rigorous procedures or canons used to guide data collection and analysis. This makes it appealing "transition" methodology for quantitatively trained researchers and practitioners who are interested in realizing the benefits of qualitative approaches or for supplementing quantitatively -driven methodologies. It also appeals to qualitative researchers who might view it as an intermediate research technique on a continuum between the more conservative quantitatively-oriented qualitative approaches (e.g., Miles and Huberman, 1984), to the more open-ended varieties of the naturalistic paradigm advocated by Lincoln and Guba (1985). Fourth, due to the nature of their work, adult educators tend to be receptive to research strategies like grounded theory which are both meaningful and applicable to the kinds of issues and concerns which traditionally characterize practice settings. Fifth, because of its exploratory nature and emphasis on discovery, this methodology lends itself to many areas in adult education which do not have an established research base or theoretical foundation. Sixth, as pointed out by Glaser citing Mezirow, Darkenwald, and Knox 's (1975) classic study of adult literacy, grounded theory enables analysis of the "data as it is as the theory emerges" (Glaser, 1978, p. 54) rather than dwelling on data the project failed to collect. Seventh, certain aspects of this methodology (e.g. constant comparative method)) can be gleaned from the grounded theory format and be successfully applied in conjunction with other forms of qualitative research. Finally, grounded theory's theoretical and epistemological assumptions manifest in its explicit focus on understanding the actions and interactions of the social actors, are consonant with the recent emphasis in adult education on learning in the social context. This focus holds widespread implications for program planning and design, instruction, and a whole host of other issues important to adult educators and the clientele they serve.

Further, the use of grounded theory as a research methodology for the study of practice settings enables educators to see ways in which they might restructure learning environments in consideration of the diverse needs of the adult learner. This is accomplished through a variety of means all of which can be effectively utilized by adult educators to help make them more sensitive to the educational process from the students' points of view. Interviews, observations, triangulation of data, and direct feedback from the students in the form of member checking can be employed to facilitate a greater and more meaningful understanding of specific adult learners, categories of adult learners, and the unique educational and sociocultural context in which learning is situated. Thus, grounded theory is particularly useful for practitioners who can readily see the application of research to practice in a manner which is grounded in the reality of their particular educational contexts and in consideration of the situation-specific actions and interactions of both students and teachers. Perhaps most importantly, it is an especially effective means for adult educators to listen to the voices of their students, thereby enhancing collaborative planning efforts and the subsequent realization of the learner's educational goals.

GUIDELINES FOR RESEARCH AND PRACTICE

Grounded theory is an inductive, constant comparative method in which the researcher ultimately attempts to generate a theory grounded in the data which summarizes the phenomenon being studied. At the heart of this methodology are the grounded theory principles of theoretical sampling, constant comparison, and the development of categories through open, axial and selective coding (Corbin, 1986; Corbin and Strauss, 1990; Strauss, 1987; Strauss and Corbin, 1990, 1994).

In the grounded theory approach, theoretical sampling refers to the sampling of elements such as events, persons, groups, or activities guided by the emerging theory (Strauss, 1987). Sampling by this technique requires that the researcher select a small number of observations, interviews, etc.,

which leads purposively to other selections which are made according to the categories emerging from the data. Theoretical sampling directs data collection and comparative analysis from the onset of the study. As the study progresses, the analyst moves on to the next site, individual, or population, on the basis of the emerging theory (Corbin, 1986). Sampling ends when all the categories become "saturated."

Theoretical sampling also is closely tied to another key concept of grounded theory which is known as the constant comparative method, or simply constant comparison. This method is based on a concept-indicator model which the data are constantly compared to each other and are coded by the researcher accordingly (Strauss, 1987). These incidents are given conceptual labels and are classified into categories and properties of these categories on the basis of similar attributes or characteristics. This process of grouping similar incidents together is called categorizing, and is the most fundamental process of the grounded theory technique. Although theoretical sampling and the constant comparative method of coding and analyzing data directs the further selection of informants, it is important to note that all phases of data collection and analysis overlap and should be conducted concurrently.

Whereas theoretical sampling is the process by which the researcher collects, codes, and analyzes the data in relation to the emerging theory, open coding is the initial coding during the researcher conducts a number of tasks. These include "asking" the data a set of questions (e.g., what are these data pertinent to, what do they indicate, etc.), analyzing the data in detail to avoid overlooking important categories, and writing theoretical memos which help in the analysis. The analyst must also avoid assuming the relevance of analytic categories that have not "earned" their way into the data. In open coding, incidents (events, actions, interactions) are compared and given conceptual labels. Conceptually similar incidents are grouped together to form categories. Categories are then broken down into properties, and dimensions of those properties, which provide a more in-depth analysis of these relationships. Properties are considered to be attributes of a category whereas dimensions represent locations of these properties along a continuum.

The second type of coding, axial coding, consists of a detailed analysis of each category through a coding paradigm involving a consideration of the conditions that gave rise to it, the context in which it takes place, the strategies in which it is carried out or managed, and the consequences of these strategies. This process results in the delineation of hypothetical relationships between a category and its subcategories and between the category and other categories. Whereas open coding allows for the identification of categories, properties, and dimensions, axial coding further specifies or elaborates the connections between a category and its subcategories (Strauss and Corbin, 1990).

The third type of coding, selective coding, is the process by which all categories are related to the core category. A core category is a category which links all the other categories together and is therefore central to the integration of the theory (Strauss, 1987). The core category should appear frequently in the data, relate easily to the other categories, and hold implications for the construction of the more general theory. In other words, selective coding is the process by which all categories are integrated around the core category, and these relationships are validated against the data. In effect, all other categories become subservient to the core category which guides subsequent theoretical sampling and data collection (Strauss, 1987; Strauss and Corbin, 1990). Ultimately, the core category serves as the basis for the emerging theory.

In consideration of these criteria, researchers and practitioners interested in grounded theory can assess grounded theory studies, or implement studies utilizing this methodology, by paying careful attention to several key components associated with this approach. These are outlined in Table 1, below. Although the importance of following these criteria are stressed in a number of publications (see in particular Strauss and Corbin, 1990, for a comprehensive overview of grounded theory procedures and techniques), our review of extant literature reveals that relatively few articles contain all of these steps or components. This raises a number of critical and interesting questions pertaining to use of this methodology for research and practice such as: What elements must be included for

a study to fall within the domain of grounded theory? How valid is research which utilizes only certain components of this methodology while ignoring others? Is it necessary to ultimately generate a grounded theory or can themes or hypotheses be offered instead? Is it necessary to use theoretical sampling to select informants? Can grounded theory be used to analyze data that has already been collected via post-hoc techniques?

Table 1.
Procedural Checklist for Assessing Grounded Theory Studies

Steps (Concurrent)	Components
Theoretical Sampling	Sampling of elements such as events, persons, groups, or activities according to the nature of the emerging categories or theory. Use of the constant comparison method.
Open Coding	Initial coding of data. Incidents are compared and given conceptual labels. Conceptually similar incidents are grouped together to form categories. Categories are broken down into subcategories, properties and dimensions.
Axial Coding	Delineation of hypothetical relationships between a category and its subcategories, and between the category and other categories through a consideration of conditions, context, strategies, and consequences of actions and interactions.
Selective Coding	Process by which the categories are related to the core category. Becomes basis for the grounded theory.
Grounded Theory	"Full-blown" theory and/or themes, patterns, or hypotheses.

CONCLUSION

Future research must address these questions and expand into other problem areas not often subject to grounded theory analyses. Our experience with this methodology suggests to us that grounded theory would be particularly useful for the study of: (1) adult learning and motivation, (2) program planning and evaluation, and (3) adult literacy, as well as a host of other topics which have traditionally been approached from more of a quantitatively-oriented perspective.

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BEHIND THE SMOKE AND MIRRORS OF REORGANIZATION: A STUDY OF THE PSYCHOSOCIAL REACTION AND RESPONSE OF MANAGERS TO REORGANIZATION

Mickey Anne Benson

ABSTRACT

For more than a decade, reorganizations and reductions in workforce have been ubiquitious strategies in American business organizations. Organizations have downsized, right-sized, restructured, re-engineered, and flattened organizational structure as employees have been laid-off, surplused, outplaced, and early retired. Reorganized or re-structured organizations are particularly vulnerable to "reorganization fallout" of negative human consequences which decrease productivity, efficiency, quality, and employee morale.

By focusing attention on the psychological, emotional and behavioral reactions of managers to the process of reorganization, this research developed a taxonomy for understanding survivor reactions. Reactions were shown to occur across a set of multidimensional continua from "survivor-victim" to "survivor-learner" attitudes, with associated "reactive" and "proactive" psycho-emotive and behavioral reactions.

The survivorship experience was traced from initial denial of organizational change and breach of the psychological contract, through feelings of job insecurity, to traumatic realizations which challenged individual identity and values. Results suggested that organizational revitalization requires an organizational environment which is conducive for transformational learning.

INTRODUCTION

For more than a decade, in both recessionary and non-recessionary environments, reductions in workforce have become a standard and pervasive strategy in American business organizations. The overall workforce has been downsized, right-sized, restructured, re-engineered, flattened, laid-off, surplused, outplaced, and early retired. Between 1987 and 1991 more than 85% of Fortune 1000 companies reduced their workforce (Cameron, et al., 1991). Statistics indicate the plight of private business, but the process of downsizing has been pervasive throughout all sectors of American enterprise from educational institutions to government and military. Traditional paradigms and rules are shifting and organizational and economic growth and job security have become questionable or non-existent.

Previous "organizational wisdom" held that employees who retained their jobs in the newly reorganized situation, the so-called "survivors," would feel lucky and happy to have retained employment. Consequently, even though vital to the success of the organization, survivors have, typically, been ignored as attention was directed toward those who lost employment. It has become increasingly apparent that survivors experience severe stresses: suffering a blend of "battle fatigue," disillusionment, guilt, and grief (e.g., Noer, 1993). Increasingly, those responsible for designing and mediating both reductive and mediation strategies have become the targets of the reductions themselves, i.e., managers, administrators, and professionals.

The purpose of this research was to understand the psychosocial and psycho-emotive reactions and responses of non-hourly employees to the process of reorganization. A cross-disciplinary approach was used to track and explain the survivorship experience from initial denial of organizational change and breach of psychological contract, through feelings of job insecurity, to life/career insecurity which questioned basic individual definitions of the meaning of self and work. Because of space limitations, only results of the study are presented and discussed here. Terms are defined and limited references to the diverse literature framing the study are given as required throughout the discussion.

Questions guiding the inquiry were: 1) What psycho-emotive reactions occur as part of the reorganization process? 2) What is the psychosocial response of managers to the process of reorganization? and 3) What psycho-emotive and psychosocial differences, if any, exist between managerial levels of the organization? (The term "reorganization" was defined to describe the process of organizational restructuring which included some period of workforce reduction.)

The research was conducted in a Fortune 100 organization using a hermeneutic style of qualitative methodology. Thirty participants (7 senior managers, 7 mid-managers, and 16 supervisors) were interviewed regarding their lived experience of reorganization and survival. Techniques set forth by Glaser (1978) and Miles and Huberman (1984) were used to guide data collection and analysis. Techniques described by Guba and Lincoln (1989) were used for quality control. (For a complete description of the methodology and analysis, see Benson, 1994.) This methodology provided the opportunity for the researcher 1) to learn and understand the organizational culture, history, and change in the contextual environment; 2) to uncover and understand individual constructives (meanings) in the context of the organizational environment; and 3) to understand the individual realities within the context of the organizational realities.

UNDERSTANDING THE ORGANIZATIONAL CONTEXT

Traditions and culture of the organization were so stable and so well understood and accepted by employees that both implicit and explicit expectations were taken for granted by both individuals and the institution. This environment created an atmosphere in which there was virtually no variation in the participants descriptions of the psychological contract. All understood and accepted that the contract was based upon an implicit and explicit set of core values which included respect for the individual, "world class" quality and customer service, and high individual and organizational standards. Individuals joined the organization because of "the way [the company] treated its people," outstanding corporate performance, "unlimited opportunity" and "aura of success," and the opportunity to "join a very elite group." The culture was so stable that the "...business conduct guidelines were the same document for 30 years..." The company provided secure employment, excellent benefits, geographic mobility, educational opportunities, and opportunity for advancement. In return employees were dedicated and loyal; they made long term commitments to the organization, performed to the image of "being the best," and were proud of and appreciated the organization.

Although organizational goals, values, and culture were actually dynamic over time, any major changes were accomplished so gradually as to go unnoticed. A psycho-emotive equilibrium developed and was maintained between organization and individuals which allowed both organization and individual to feel very secure. Both partners became very successful and reaped many tangible and intangible rewards. This "Quiescent Period," referred to by participants as "the good old days," and of being "one big happy family" was perceived to be never ending. Employees at all levels believed intensely in the culture, traditions, and infallibility of the company and its management system.

Through the 1980's, as the external business environment became volatile and corporate economic growth slowed, the company began a process of strategic structural and personnel realignments which challenged institutional traditions and organizational culture. Initially personnel realignments were accomplished through attrition, limited hiring and salary action, and re-deployment. Finally in the early 1990s, institutional economic considerations required incentive packages to encourage anyone interested "to pursue other opportunities." Although these strategies were counter to established norms and traditions and not supported by the psychological contract, major changes occurred gradually and the implications were so subtle that they could be ignored or denied by most managers and employees..

> My early years with the company, people lived, died, and bled on the fact that this company wouldn't make a mistake. If it did, it wouldn't be an important one, and it would be corrected very quickly. If we said 'this is the way to go,' that was the way to go. I think people really

> believed that. The reason they believed it was because the company had demonstrated that successfully for over 50 years - probably as successfully as any company in the history of capitalism... It is not a criticism that people believed that or felt that... the proof was in the pudding. The problem is that when the proof started going away, everyone believed that it was a temporary thing that would fix itself. Supervisor

> Downsizing is sort of a phenomenon and it's something you read about in the paper... Until it really hit me, it wasn't me [and] it wasn't real. Like being a teenager and driving fast and drinking... I'm not going to die... Supervisor

As economics continued to drive realignments, the hallmark security and stability, once perceived as an entitlement, became questionable. In 1993, the implementation of the fourth major reduction of workforce in as many years, the magnitude, volume, and effect of previous changes forced individual recognition of the shifts in organizational culture and philosophy.

> The entitlements that we had from the company are disappearing... The asset value, the people value, is not valued anyway near what it was. Now they'll get rid of those people as opposed to full employment and the cost of maintaining full employment. A very different way to look at things. Senior Manager

PSYCHO-EMOTIVE AND PSYCHOSOCIAL REACTIONS

As the magnitude and significance of changes became undeniable, individuals were forced to realize that their psychological contract was no longer valid - indeed, the company had changed. Even though changes had occurred gradually, employees perceived the changes as having happened "all of a sudden." With organizational history and psychological contract no longer accurate frames of reference for daily interactions or career decisions, individuals were frustrated, disappointed, and angry. The invalidation or breach of the psychological contract created distrust, dis-harmony, and confusion which marked the beginning of the "Upheaval Period."

> The hardest part about reorganization has been constantly feeling a little unsettled. Knowing that something is out there. You feel like you just can't totally settle in and do exactly what you want to do because in the back of your mind you are still saying that it may be different tomorrow... When I look back, there have been so many changes... day-in and day-out, we really didn't know what our destiny was - both as a business or on personal levels... Supervisor

Participants described job insecurity in terms of fear of losing, not only job, but status, community, privileges, resources, flexibility, and career progress. The stress of job insecurity evoked a set of psycho-emotive reactions which appear to occur universally. These reactions included, but were not limited to, powerlessness, fear of the unknown, anger, low self-esteem, grief, guilt, confusion, and impaired decision making (see also Noer 1993). As the magnitude and extent of change became undeniable, the stress of job insecurity was internalized to become a threat to individual sense of self and security. That is, the stress of job insecurity evolved to become the "traumatic stress of Life/Career Insecurity" and a threat to individual core values. All participants described a similar sequence of organizational events, but individual recognition and interpretation of the events varied significantly.

Individual recognition and interpretation ranged from "Reactive-Survivor-Victim" to "Evolving-Survivor-Learner." Reactive-Survivor-Victim was used to describe individuals who dysfunctionally used defensive mechanisms to avoid recognizing and/or dealing with Life/Career Insecurity.. Reactive-Survivor-Learners used job insecurity as a primary focus so as to avoid cognitive and emotional recognition of organizational changes and Life/Career Insecurity. They presented egocentric, reactive, and negative psycho-emotive verbal and non-verbal responses and actions. Because they avoided personal introspection, they tended to yield major decision-making and control to another

individual, usually a spouse, or to the institutional organization. Abdication of decision-making and control caused increased feelings of powerlessness which intensified denial and avoidance tactics.

> I joke that all of the reasons I joined [the company] don't exist anymore. There were times that I got really nervous about it... I finally got to the point where I just said, 'I can't worry about it. I just have to go to work and do my best everyday and whatever happens, happens...' I could go somewhere else, but they could also shut down... I didn't really feel the stability was any better anywhere else... I didn't really want to start all over again... there really in no security anywhere... I might as well stay until I don't have that option anymore... I decided not to worry about it anymore... Supervisor

Meanwhile, Evolving-Survivor-Learner was used to describe individuals who worked through a process of transformational learning (Mezirow, 1991; 1990) and achieve a more complex, higher level understanding of personal values and relationship/connection to work and the process of reorganization. The Evolving-Survivor-Learner presented thoughtful, reflective, and philosophical verbal and non-verbal responses as they described an introspective and reflective process of evaluation. They described their inner turmoil as they recognized the necessity for re-evaluating personal goals, values, and life-career choices.

> There was a feeling of betrayal... There is a feeling of just not understanding. There is a period that you have to go through before it becomes okay... you evaluate your own goals and values... over time I decided why I wanted to do this [job]... It forced me to think about some things that I had never though about before.. like, 'Why am I working?' Then you realize that 'I am working because I have to.' I had always kind of thought I was working because I wanted to. I do want to work, I do enjoy work... basically, it was a transformation process and I had to decide why I wanted to work here. That to me was what was important. If I could work through that, then I could do what needed to be done... If I couldn't resolve that, then I needed to decide where I wanted to go and what I wanted to do.
> (Question: What prompted you to start thinking about those decisions?) I was mad! Probably more that anything else, I was mad. In a very personal way I felt like I had to work this thing out for myself, so that I could control me. I felt like I had 2 choices - I could either just get drug along by this thing, and, in the process make (strategic and organizational) decisions that could influence people's lives, my own included, but a lot of other people's lives and decisions that influence how this company spends a lot of money - which you quickly don't care as much about all of a sudden - but it will affect a lot of people. I had to decide, 'did I want those decisions to get made just because I was going with the flow, kind of doing whatever would make my day the least painful? Or, was I going to make those decisions because of what I believe is really the right thing to do?' I had to decide so I could control me... You kind of get into who is going to own you soul. I decided that I wanted to own my own soul. I didn't want a series of events, not even a person... to do that! I felt backed into a corner, but it was a conscious decision on why I had to do a transformation. I felt like I would look back 5 or 10 years from now and really regret the fact that I hadn't... and maybe not like myself too much... I didn't want to do that - life is too short to do that... Supervisor

REACTION VARIATION BETWEEN ORGANIZATION LEVELS

Variations in psycho-emotive reactions were related to individual psychosocial development, and psychosocial development appeared to be influenced by competence and/or willingness of the individual participant to recognize and evaluate the disequilibrium associated with organizational changes and breach of the psychological contract. As might be expected, Survivor-Victims at all levels were frustrated, overwhelmed, fatigued, reactive, and blaming. Meanwhile, Survivor-Learners, at all levels, expressed their desire to achieve a balance in both their personal and organizational lives. It is important to note that each Survivor-Learner acknowledged the need for a supportive and secure environment in which to undertake the task of transformational learning. Each recognized and paid high tribute to spouse, friends, and/or other managers who had offered moral support and

encouragement. Likewise, each indicated impatience and frustration with the collective organizational mentality of "trying to sprint a marathon."

CONCLUSIONS

The activity of "reorganization" was defined to be a process which begins with the genesis of the idea to re-structure an organization and continues until a new day-to-day equilibrium is established, i.e., from Quiescence to Upheaval to new Quiescence. The concept of job insecurity came to be understood as a stress which evolved from a vague uneasiness about minor aspects of job circumstances to become severe insecurity and uncertainty about the preservation of job as defined by the psychological contract. As the Upheaval Period continued, Job Insecurity evolved to become Life/Career Insecurity as reorganization was perceived to threaten individual self-definition. Because of the significance which individuals attach to self, to work, and to the meaning of work, the process of reorganization represented a critical life event for many participants in the study. Psycho-emotive reactions derived directly from individual recognition and evaluation of the stresses of Job Insecurity and Life/Career Insecurity. Intensity and direction of expression of psycho-emotive reactions were related to the individual's ability and willingness to confront the stress.

Resiliency and learning are key issues in understanding managerial psychosocial response to the reorganization process. Opportunity exists for individuals to shift between Reactive-Survivor-Learner and Evolving-Survivor-Learner. Social support, individual desire for harmony, and willingness to engage in transformational learning are important components in selection of response system.

Since managers are responsible and accountable for leadership and growth of and within the reorganized organization, they can be considered a harbinger of the psychological health and well-being of an organization. Even so, this was the first study to focus on understanding the psychosocial reaction and response of managers to the process of reorganization. Through this understanding appropriate strategies can be designed and developed to facilitate organizational change and psycho-emotive reactions to the change process can be anticipated. It is clear that much additional cross-disciplinary and cross-sector research is necessary. Perhaps the most significant implication of this study is the challenge it offers for managers, researchers, and educators to break down the old boundaries which separate them. These groups must work together to form new alliances, to develop a common knowledge base, and to develop a common language for communication. If organizations are to learn, use diversity to full advantage, and be competitive in a global economy, it is essential that all perspectives and interpretations merge to create a dynamic and accurate understanding of the effects of reorganization.

Understanding Job Insecurity as a stress which evolves into traumatic stress of Life/Career Insecurity may help explain the mixed results of recent studies of job insecurity. It seems likely that recent studies are confusing and inconclusive because they attempt to measure a mixture of these stresses. (See Brockner, et al., 1992; Roskies & Louis-Guerin, 1990.) It would also seem that understanding that the stress response operates along a continuum, challenges existing notions of survivors as victims who exhibit symptoms of "disease" or "wounds." Results of this study suggest that, by adopting a resiliency or developmental model for interpreting survivor psycho-emotive reactions, mediation can be accomplished within a supportive environment through individual learning and perspective transformation. Reasearchers, managers, and educators must work together to build mutual trust and to create the kind of supportive environment which encourages adult psychosocial development through transformational learning.

As organizations continue workforce reductions and flattening of organizational hierarchies, managers and employees will require new skills and levels of understanding in areas such as adult psychosocial development, individual and group dynamics, and communication. Cross-disciplinary research and education must actively involve educators, researchers, and managers working together to develop new conceptions of organizations, management, and employeeship.

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A BLUEPRINT FOR TRANSITIONING THE RETURNING ADULT INTO HIGHER EDUCATION

Lois D. Bishop

ABSTRACT

Entire degree programs have been developed to meet the needs of the adult learner but many fall short of even their own expectations. The reason this occurs is because the learners are not prepared to participate in these carefully planned programs. Few institutions have addressed the preparedness or readiness issue of the adult. The needs of the returning adult student were acknowledged through the means of an entry course titled *Blueprints for Lifelong Learning*. This course addressed the issue of transitions, uncertainties, readiness, expectations and alternatives of returning to school. At the conclusion of the course the students developed an individualized "blueprint" or plan of action with a faculty member. The results were a noticeable improvement in academic success, compared to students who did not complete *Blueprints*, and satisfaction with the academic program by both students and faculty. This practitioner oriented presentation yields questions for further investigation in the areas of relationship between the entry course and academic success and also, between academic skills assessment and academic success in returning adult students.

INTRODUCTION

"I don't know what you're doing in that *Blueprints* course, but it sure has improved the quality of instruction I'm able to deliver in my classroom." "The students walk in ready to learn, at the first class session, now." "The students seem to be much better prepared academically than in the past."

These comments were made at program faculty meetings following the implementation of the *Blueprints for Lifelong Learning* course. Aslanian & Brickell (1989) have written about life transitions and triggers as being the force which compels adults back into the educational arena. They found that 83% of adults returning to school did so for utilitarian reasons and were responding to life transitions. The *Blueprints* course was designed to assist returning adults transition into the role of full-time student and to provide an assessment of the incoming students' academic skills levels. Prior to the implementation of this introductory course, faculty had observed the competent, practicing health care professional become trepidatious students unsure about their ability to complete straightforward writing and math assignments. Adult students experience feelings of inadequacy and these feelings are counterproductive to academic success (Steltenpohl & Shipton, 1986). Faculty wanted the students' confidence and competence to carry over into the classroom.

In this paper, I will be describing our experience, at National-Louis University, in assisting students to transition into the role of full-time college students. I will discuss the significant elements and outcomes of the course we developed to facilitate this transition. Also, I will describe areas where further research would enhance adult educators understanding of how to best assist returning adults to achieve academic success and satisfying learning experiences.

BACKGROUND OF THE PROBLEM

Many adult students enrolled in our degree completion program successfully overcame monumental hurdles in their lives when they decided to complete their bachelor's degree. All too often, the faculty observed the process and the results become a frustrating experience which in the end, did not result in the students achieving their desired outcomes. The faculty also observed that students frequently lacked clarity in purpose, possessed insufficient understanding of the implications of undertaking a full-time course of study and were insecure about their own academic preparation and skill level. This insecurity is called "the imposter syndrome" by Stephen Brookfield (1990) and results in the adult

student perceiving all the other students around them as being much more capable and confident than themselves.

We questioned our students about their perceptions of the situation. We asked them what the University could do to help them complete their undergraduate degree and decrease the unnecessary frustrations they were experiencing as returning adult students.

Their responses provided clarity and direction to plan and to provide assistance for them. Their major concerns revolved around three questions. These questions were:

Will I be able to accomplish my goal of completing the degree? (Students expressed concerns about their entering academic skill level, am I good enough? They also wanted to know program requirements before enrolling so there would be no surprises for them later.)
What will it take to complete this degree? (This need expressed by the students concerned weekly time commitment, financial outlay, additional course work and total length of time to complete the entire degree, not only the major.)
Is this really the degree for me? (To answer this question, the students wanted to know if this degree would provide the career opportunities and options they were seeking. Were they ready to take on this commitment now and what were their alternatives?)

Combining the information gathered from the students and the faculty teaching in the program, a faculty team designed a course to address the concerns. The course was titled "*Blueprints for Lifelong Learning.*"

During the *Blueprints* course, the students complete an assessment of personal and professional career accomplishments and expectations and an academic skills assessment. The students are then provided with developmental recommendations in the areas of their academic skills to assist them in developing a plan to achieve their goals. This helps to build congruence between student and program expectations. It also increases student (and faculty) satisfaction in the teaching/learning process and has improved the rate of academic success.

DESCRIPTION OF BLUEPRINTS

The *Blueprints for Lifelong Learning* course consists of five class session, each four hours in length. The class activities are designed to derive maximum benefit from group support and group process. The Health Care Leadership major relies heavily on student involvement and interaction to achieve the expected student learning outcomes. The *Blueprints* classes model that style of teaching and learning to assist the student in developing realistic assumptions about the course work they are undertaking. The students complete the exercises in Paul Breen & Whitaker's Bridging the gap: A learner's guide to transferable skills workbook during the course.

Some of the learning activities which are planned as part of the course work include: viewing a movie dealing with adult learning and participating in a follow-up discussion on the impact of returning to school as an adult, writing an autobiographical time line, identifying personal values, goals and aspirations and completing an assessment of their current transferable skills. The students plan and schedule an informational interview with someone in a position to which they aspire and discuss the personal, professional and academic preparation to achieve that position and the advantages and disadvantages of the job. In class, they present an informal oral report about their findings and experience in the interview situation.

Assessments of reading, writing and mathematical skill levels are conducted during two of the five class sessions in *Blueprints*. The assessments are classified as authentic because they replicate actual class assignments. Although these assessments are routine to those administering and evaluating them, they can be a serious threat to the students completing them (Brookfield, 1990.) Being mindful of this, faculty use strategies to allay these anxieties as much as possible.

During the fifth class session, students meet individually with faculty members to discuss how they can best accomplish their goal of completing a baccalaureate degree. At the completion of the *Blueprints* course the student will have answered the three questions: What will it take to complete this degree? Will I be able to accomplish my goal of completing the degree? And, Is this really the degree for me?

THE FINDINGS

The course, *Blueprints for Lifelong Learning* we developed takes into consideration the life transition issues and other needs of the returning adult. We designed this course to assist the returning adult to make that transition and have found this to be successful at improving academic success and student satisfaction. For the purpose of this paper, academic success is defined in terms of persistence rates, course completion and graduation rates.

To date, 159 students have completed the *Blueprints for Lifelong Learning* course. Our students are between the ages of twenty-four and fifty-six, largely female (86%) and are employed in clinical and non-clinical positions in the health care delivery system. All but 5% have completed at least two years of college credit or its equivalent, some significantly more, but none have completed a bachelors degree.

At the time we implemented the *Blueprints* course, we anticipated enrolling approximately 60% of those beginning *Blueprints* directly into the Health Care Leadership (HCL) major. We expected some students to delay enrollment in HCL to better prepare themselves academically and personally. We also expected that a few would self select out if the program was not a good match with their goals, expectations and academic preparation.

We were accurate in our projection. Our experience has been that 58% (N = 159) enroll in HCL shortly (within three months) after completing *Blueprints*. Several students have worked for 18-24 months after completing the course in preparation for enrolling in the major. We also gained some unexpected insight into persistence in our returning adult students. One very interesting observation we have been able to make is that 7.5% (12) of the students who enroll in *Blueprints*, stop attending class before the fifth class session and never complete the course. That number has been constant for each of the three years we have been offering the course. Another 17% (27) of the students who enroll in *Blueprints* are considered unqualified. They are classified as unqualified because they do not complete their admission file. Most commonly this is the student who for one reason or another does not submit transcripts for all previous academic institutions attended. A small number in this group (5 students) lacked sufficient number of required credit hours to enroll in the major.

We now know that only 75% of those who originally begin *Blueprints* will not be eligible to enter the HCL major. Of those who qualify, 3% (5) decide to enroll in another major offer at the University and 14% (22) decide not to enroll at our University at all. Some of these students decide they want to pursue a clinical degree (which we do not offer), a different style of education or no further education at the current time. Since one of the objectives of the *Blueprints* course is to answer "Is this really the degree for me?" we are comfortable with students deciding to enroll in another major or university because we do not want to be enrolling students in our program who are not appropriate. A strong commitment to personal goals combined with a strong commitment to the educational institution will increase the likelihood of institutional persistence (Tinto, 1987.) To date, 93 students who have completed *Blueprints* have enrolled in the HCL major.

Of those 93, 48 students have completed the required the sequence of courses in the Health Care Leadership major. Their experience with academic success has been as follows. Twenty-nine students or 60% have completed all the other degree requirements and have graduated. Only 15% (7) of the students who enrolled in HCL discontinued their studies before completing the entire course sequence. Most of those who withdrew experienced a significant change in their personal situations

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such as health or family crises. We do not routinely conduct exit interviews or follow up surveys which might serve to identify unmet needs.

Another indicator of academic success which was selected to study was the number of "In-progress" ('I') grades issued to students. The 'I' grade is assigned when the student needs more time to complete the required assignments, to redo unsatisfactory work or to make up work missed due to absences. The number of students who have received an In-progress grade in at least one course in the major is 5 students or 10%.

These numbers take on meaning when compared to the students' experience prior to the implementation of the *Blueprints* course. A direct cause effect relationship cannot be inferred because other changes were made in the curriculum which also may have impacted the students academic success, however some observations and comparisons can be made.

The group of students to be compared and contrasted with the "*Blueprints* students" are student who were enrolled in the health care program the year immediately preceding the implementation of *Blueprints*. The number of students in the comparison group is 63. These students decided that they wished to complete their degree, enrolled in the health care program and began attending classes. No interview with faculty or academic planning or academic skills assessment was required for these students. The orientation to the University and the program took place during the first class session. They did not have any assistance in incorporating the role of a full-time student with their other responsibilities. Their classmates became their support group. Some of the course work did include career assessment activities but it occurred after the students had made significant commitments to themselves, their family and friends, their employers and the University.

In spite of this level of commitment made early in their relationship with the University, these students had a lower persistence rate. In this group of students, 13 or 21% withdrew from the program before completing the major. Once again, without a system for determining the actual cause for separation from the University, it is impossible to conclude how much of this was preventable.

The number of students who received "In-progress" grades during their course of study was noticeably higher in this group, with 43% or 27 students in this category. Curricular changes were made to remove unnecessary barriers to completion of course work at the same time the *Blueprints* course was implemented so it is impossible to draw a direct correlation here. So which variable was responsible for the increase in course completion, the curricular design, *Blueprints* or some other factor? This author believes the increase in course completion is due to a combination of factors, but the academic skills assessment does play an important role in course completion.

The impact of academic skills assessment on the students' confidence level and course completion should be investigated further. The change from 43% of the students receiving at least one "In-progress" grade down to 10% certainly merits more study.

The final factor used to measure academic success, for the purpose of this paper, is graduation rate. The graduation rate of the students who did not have *Blueprints* was 36.5% or 23 students out of the 63 who originally enrolled. Once again the difference between the two groups is large enough to signal a need for further study into the reasons for a difference of this magnitude.

Since implementation of *Blueprints*, 19 students have completed end-of-program evaluations which now have an item for students to indicate their satisfaction with the program. The question reads, "On a scale of 1 - 10, one being low and ten being high, rate your satisfaction with the Health Care Leadership program." The average score was 8.86 with the range being 7 - 10. All of the students are satisfied with their learning experiences in program. The end-of-program evaluations used for the group who did not have *Blueprints* did not include an item for students to indicate their overall level of satisfaction with the learning experiences in the degree completion program so no comparisons can be made in this area.

At the completion of all of the course work, students were asked their recollections of the *Blueprints* course. Some of the responses were: "Quite frankly I hardly remember it. I do know that it helped get me into the 'student' role." "I feel very strongly that *Blueprints* prepared me for the fast pace of the program." "If you had no education experiences for many years, it would be beneficial." The *Blueprints* course was rated as important by students who had not been in the student role for a long period of time. It was less important to those who were experienced as adult students, but they continued to recommend it for others with less experience. The course did provide the desired information and support to assist the returning adult transition into full-time study.

CONCLUSIONS

The measures of academic success, course completion, persistence and graduation rates, all show improvement in the students who completed the *Blueprints for Lifelong Learning* before enrolling in the health care major. And, these student rate their level of satisfaction with their learning experiences at our University as high. How much of this improvement and level of satisfaction is due to the implementation of the *Blueprints* course? It is impossible to make a conclusive statement at this point, since there are a number of other intervening variables, but it is evident that it did promote positive changes.

The University has multiple programs geared for the returning adult. Should this course be adopted for all returning adult students, not only those entering the health care major? Walleri & Peglow-Hoch's (1988) findings that career goals have a high positive correlation to student success indicate the career assessment and goal establishment activities are components which should be retained.

Is there benefit in including the academic skills assessment as part of the class activities? What philosophy of assessment will help us achieve our goals of increasing the returning adult's academic success, authentic, standardized or self assessment? There are strong arguments for self assessment, but total self assessment is not accurate, due to subjectivity and lack of expertise (Whitaker, 1992.) What blend of outside assessment and self assessment will produce the maximum benefit to the student? Much as the students are intimidated by the assessments, they value the outside feedback provided to them. The faculty anticipated that a number of students would need remediation before enrolling in the major, but that has not been the case. The students academic skills have been evaluated as adequate for beginning the major. Does the feedback from the assessment answer the students' concerns about their ability levels to proceed with confidence? According to Steltenpohl and Shipton(1986) adults who actively participate in assessing their academic skills through concrete experience are eager to set goals for remediation or for the development of new skills. Indeed, being able to name their limitation or the skill to be acquired seems to generate strong motivation and even enthusiasm for getting on with the task (page 647.) Does assessing and reporting back the results to the adult student provide sufficient information for the adult to make their own plans on to how to improve, provided they have developmental assistance readily available to them? Faculty comments strongly support continuing the assessments as a means of maintaining higher levels of academic performance.

The student must remain the central focus in the process. The class activities in the *Blueprints* course provide the student with the means to address the uncertainties, readiness, goals, expectations and alternatives of returning to college. The student, with mentoring from a faculty member, develops their own "blueprint" or plan of action to follow.

Based on our experience, adults need assistance in making the transition into the role of student. An entry course addressing their needs and concerns aids in this transition, promoting academic success and satisfying learning experiences. Other educators of adults will find this strategy helpful in addressing not only the students needs but also in offering faculty the opportunity to facilitate more meaningful and effective instruction in their classrooms.

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TOWARD A MODEL FOR EVALUATING COMMERCIALLY PREPARED CRITICAL THINKING MATERIALS FOR ADULT LITERACY

Cynthia Blodgett

ABSTRACT

The concept of critical thinking has been examined extensively within the context of K-12 and higher education, but few researchers have specifically focused on the role of critical thinking as it relates to adult basic education. The vastness of the critical thinking literature, the variety of meanings attributed to the term, and the continuing debate between divergent viewpoints regarding definition, meaning, and effective teaching methodology all contribute to this complex scenario. Regardless of this lack of consensus, recent national and state policies have joined with the demands of the workplace to require the low literacy learner to develop critical thinking abilities. While commercial publishers have responded to this educational demand by publishing materials which speak to these perceived "critical thinking" needs, the actual critical thinking needs of low literacy learners has yet to be clearly identified. This research explores the different applications of critical thinking that are currently required of literacy instruction, introduces a model for evaluation of commercially prepared critical thinking materials marketed for adult literacy, and examines results of an application of this model to a sample of commercially prepared critical thinking materials for adult literacy.

INTRODUCTION

Literacy: "an individual's ability to read, write and speak in English, and to compute and solve problems at levels of proficiency necessary to function on the job and in society, to achieve one's goals, and develop one's knowledge and potential." *National Literacy Act, 1991*

The Adult Education Act was passed by the United States Congress as a means to curb the rising tide of illiteracy in the United States and promote attainment of high school completion for movement into the workforce. More that two decades later, the National Literacy Act of 1991 redefined literacy to include achievement of one's goals, and development of one's knowledge and potential. These policies were meant to ensure that literacy education would be available to all eligible adults.

Increased complexity of life skills and technology and change of personal and social values have resulted in an increased demand on literacy practitioners to be equipped to teach not only basic skills, but also thinking skills, to prepare the low-literacy learner to succeed in a technologically changing society. No longer does "basic skills" refer to simple reading and math computation, but now includes high school equivalency, computer skills, and especially organized problem solving abilities, communication skills, and interpersonal skills. In a news conference held in response to the release of the findings of the National Adult Literacy Survey (NALS) in September, 1993, United States Department of Education Secretary Richard Riley stated: "...the vast majority of Americans do not know that they do not have the skills they need to earn a living in our increasingly technological society and international marketplace." In addition to this increased level of basic skills, the National Literacy Act of 1991 specifies the need for adults to develop responsibilities as citizens and participate in the democratic process.

CRITICAL THINKING AND THE ADULT LITERACY LEARNER

The educational value of critical thinking is widely accepted from the philosophical viewpoint that education should stimulate reasoning ability to enhance the adult learner's coping skills in personal and societal contexts (Kurfiss, 1988). Ennis (1992) suggests that an important goal of the schools is not only to teach students to think critically but to transfer that ability to life situations. The ability to think in a critical manner is a skill which empowers the adult to participate effectively in society, or to change society (Brookfield, 1991; Freire, 1978; Hunkins, 1989; Kim, 1993; Norris, 1992). Adult

literacy education is responding to policy directives by seeking learner materials to introduce critical thinking strategies into literacy curriculum.

Although critical thinking literature has historically been grounded in K-12 and higher education research, it is not enough to "teach" critical thinking to literacy learners from those perspectives. Adult learners have adult goals and objectives - adult agendas - which influence participation and learning. Literacy learners, however, have usually met with difficulties or failure during their K-12 years. This psychosocial dimension of the literacy learner is an important consideration for educators. Andragogical teaching strategies also need to be infused into critical thinking teaching methodologies to appeal to learning agendas of developing adults. Lack of critical thinking ability limits the individual's ability to reach goals and personal potential (Kim, 1993). Critical thinking skill-building may be opposed by students because of level of difficulty, and by parents and organizations for teaching individuals to think critically about dogma and policy (Merriam & Caffarella, 1988). This research suggests that the divergent learning goals indicated by policy and daily life contexts (including the workplace) require approaches to teaching critical thinking to the adult literacy learner which are different from K-12 or higher education.

Brookfield (1987), Blatz (1992) and others suggest that critical thinking is a concept which is defined differently according to the context in which it is used. Paradigms and methodologies utilized by commercially prepared curricular materials must correspond to the learning and teaching needs of the literacy classroom. This paper will explore paradigms of critical thinking as related to adult literacy, and an evaluation model for determining the world view of curricular materials. Findings of a representative selection of commercially prepared curricular materials produced for adult literacy learners will be briefly discussed.

THREE PARADIGMS OF CRITICAL THINKING

The literature was examined for fundamental variations in the conceptualization of critical thinking and critical thinkers. Within this dynamic literature, three general paradigms emerge: (a) absolutist; (b) generalizable; and (c) holistic. Open coding revealed categories unique to each paradigm. Scholarly attempts to further clarify critical thinking will continue because each paradigm is grounded in reliable research (Johnson, 1992). Johnson states, "(a)ny good definition of critical thinking must be able to display its connection with educational objectives and with the history of the term" (p, 52-53). Characteristics of the three paradigms of critical thinking will be explored in terms of the nature of truth, domain specificity or cross-contextual application of critical thinking skills, and criteria which identify the paradigm within curricula.

ABSOLUTIST CRITICAL THINKING: IN SEARCH OF THE GRAIL

Nature of Truth: Absolutist world view approaches critical thinking as a correct way of thinking to effectively seek out a correct answer, or an objective truth (Dauer, 1989; Kim, 1993; Norris, 1992; Schumacher & McMillan, 1993). Expressed in logic, analytical reasoning, critical inquiry, and scientific method, this world view has been extensively researched during this century. Scholars who adhere to the absolutist paradigm view critical thinking as a tool for seeking preexisting truth (Baker, 1989; D'Angelo, 1989; Dauer, 1989; Ennis, 1992; Kurfiss, 1986; McCutcheon, 1992; Meyers, 1986).

Domain Specificity: Within this paradigm critical thinking is a process which springs from domain-specificity. Ennis (1992) elaborating on the notion that critical thinking can occur only within a fixed domain of expertise, outlines three principles of domain specificity:

1. Background knowledge is essential for thinking in a given domain.
2. (a) Simple transfer of critical thinking dispositions and abilities from one domain to another domain is unlikely; however, (b) transfer becomes likely if, but only if, there is sufficient practice in a variety of domains and there is instruction that focuses on transfer.
3. It is unlikely that any general critical thinking instruction will be effective. (p. 24)

Criteria: Scholars have developed extensive lists of characteristics of critical thinking which serve as tools for identification and evaluation. Scholars have identified dozens of attitudes and skills required for development of critical thinking which focus on scientific method, logic, good and bad reasoning, domain specific content, deduction, value judgment, observation, credibility, assumptions and meaning, problem definition, logical, linguistic and empirical skills, faulty thinking, and determining whether an hypothesis is true (D'Angelo, 1971; Stice, 1987; Vockell and van Deusen, 1989). Bloom's taxonomy is frequently used as a framework for critical thinking skills in K-12 curriculum, which carries into adult literacy curriculum. Absolutist critical thinking skills are not cross-contextually transferable and do not include memory cues to facilitate transfer.

GENERALIZABLE PARADIGM: THE EMERGING GRAIL

Nature of Truth: Discovering meaning and emerging truth is a function of the generalized paradigm (Kim, 1993; Kurfiss, 1988; Meyers, 1986) in which critical thinking becomes an inductive frame of mind (Johnson, 1992) In this view, the process of critical thinking to be taught as a discipline unto itself which may be applied across contexts. Reflection plays an essential role in development and practice of critical thinking.

Cross-Contextual Application: Johnson (1992) emphasizes that generalizability and transferability are not synonymous. However, the generalizable approach facilitates cross-contextual transfer. This paradigm approaches critical thinking as an abstract process which is learned, then applied to content. Generalizable critical thinking includes approaches which are adaptable to new and different applications in which new insights become apparent and possibilities for novel applications evolve, generally within the domain. The generalizable paradigm is designed for the transfer of critical thinking from the classroom to daily life, a goal of the educational system (Norris, 1992) and current national policy.

Criteria: Generalizable critical thinking is an abstract process characterized by intellectual curiosity, objectivity, open-mindedness, flexibility, intellectual skepticism, intellectual honesty, being systematic, persistence, decisiveness, and respect for other viewpoints (Kurfiss, 1988). Memory cues are effective tools for increasing and enhancing memory from the standpoint of cognitive psychology (Glover, Ronning, and Bruning, 1990). Successful application of cognitive psychology learning strategies to critical thinking teaching-for-transfer seems to be a natural step.

HOLISTIC BRIDGING : EMERGING FROM THE GRAIL

Nature of Truth: Some contemporary scholars address critical thought as an emancipatory step toward improving the lot of humankind in society, referred to here as holistic critical thinking. Truth involves a component of social and personal responsibility. Encompassing both absolutist and generalizable thinking, Kim (1993) argues that both are required for an individual to think in a manner which seeks viable solutions to life's problems. Kim speaks to a world view in which the spiritual and cultural development of the individual are the means to mold character to meet the present and future needs of the nation. He argues further that a creative element must be incorporated with critical thinking *to enhance the health of society and attain a happy life for the individual*. In earlier work, D'Angelo (1971) assesses the ultimate value of critical thinking as a means to achieve a better society by utilizing of methods of inquiry to reach more accurate assessment to produce more accurate judgments. Freire and Kim approach critical thinking from an emancipatory perspective as an agent for social change (Freire, 1978; Kim, 1993). Brookfield (1986, 1991) discusses critical thinking as emancipatory thought which addresses critical skepticism and any thinking that results in change in the individual or society.

Transfer for change: Holistic critical thinking facilitates transfer cross-contextually within domains, but emphasizes divergence to new applications and novel approaches which result in benefit to society and responsible life choices.

Criteria: Critical thinking which reflects a movement from domain specificity to societal and personal life scenarios are key characteristics of the holistic paradigm. This view would embrace Brookfield's (1987) discussion of imaginative speculation, imagining alternative ways of living and thinking; reflective skepticism, calling into question established assumptions of truth about norms and roles within interpersonal relationships; and the difficult task of understanding the perspectives of others. References to daily life or workplace applications are key identifiers.

APPLICATION TO PRACTICE

The literacy learner benefits from all three paradigms of critical thinking instruction. The GED requires content-rich, domain specific critical thinking. National and state policy require cross-contextual critical thinking for the individual to apply to familial and societal expectations which require that the individual be well versed in thinking processes with awareness of personal values and be able to make responsible decisions.

Ennis offers a comprehensive description of teaching approaches toward critical thinking. These principles include the *general* approach which does not require presence of a subject, *infusion* in which critical thinking is made explicit within a subject, *immersion* in a subject but in which critical thinking processes are not specifically identified, and a *mixed* approach in which a critical thinking is taught within a subject and also as a separate process (1992). Ennis continues that immersion alone does not facilitate transfer of critical thinking processes to daily living, but that "the separate critical thinking thread within an existing subject is probably the most feasible politically" (1992, p. 22).

TOWARD A MODEL OF EVALUATION

In the sometimes confusing arena of critical thinking materials for adult literacy, an evaluation model which is research-based but practitioner-oriented is needed. An evaluation model for critical thinking curriculum specific to the learning needs of the adult literacy learner has been developed which identifies criteria from each paradigm. By examining materials in terms of categories related to the three paradigms, the practitioner is better able to choose critical thinking curriculum for an individual learner which speaks to the learner's learning objectives - GED completion, workplace-related thinking skills, family or social improvement, or a combination of these objectives.

Table 1.
Critical Thinking Curriculum for Adult Literacy: An evaluation tool

Publisher:
Title:

ABSOLUTIST	GENERALIZABLE	HOLISTIC
Skills in domain	Abstract skill only	Creative skill emerges
Seeking a correct answer	Skill applied to different domains	Transfer to daily life
No transfer focus	Memory cues for cross transfer	Imaginative speculation
Emphasis on expertise	New insights/Novel applications	Reflective skepticism
Domain oriented content		Critical skepticism
		Understanding perspectives
		Societal implications/applications
		Personal implications/applications

The categories listed below the name of each paradigm in Table 1 reflect descriptions of the paradigm in terms which are familiar within the literature (Brookfield, 1987; Ennis, 1992; Glover, Ronning and Bruning, 1990; Norris, 1992). It is important to note that these categories do not encompass all aspects of critical thinking within the disciplines of education and cognitive psychology, but address the learning goals of the literacy learner as perceived, or established, by governmental policy, workplace expectations, and the high school equivalency exam.

Evaluation of critical thinking curricular materials advertised for use by literacy learners is based upon application of the categories to the content of the materials. The unit of analysis for the evaluation consists of an entire workbook, including instructions to teachers, notes to learners, unit introductions, and summaries. Evaluation methodology encompasses observation and questioning. A training manual for this model offers clarification of key words and phrases which are commonly associated with each category.

Open coding of materials involves observation of the content in terms of focus. Questions may be asked, such as: How is critical thinking represented? What paradigm does this represent? Upon examination of the table of contents, questions include: Do chapter headings reflect taxonomies or domains? Do the headings reflect progressive development? Evaluation of the body of the lessons and exercises would include questions such as: Do scenarios reflect "real" adult daily life? Are exercises framed to involve learner's own experiences? Are personal or societal prejudices and stereotypes called into question? Are there references to goal-setting, empowerment? Are there references to democracy or social concerns? Is citizenship included or implied within the content? Is the content purely domain oriented? Are critical questioning strategies included? Is there movement from expertise into cross-contextual application? Are development of new insights or application to novel applications encouraged?

By asking questions of this nature, and seeking evidence of each of the categories within a workbook, the world view from which the material was developed becomes apparent. Materials with the majority of identifiable categories in the Absolutist paradigm focus on critical thinking within a single domain. These materials are applicable to the learner who seeks to develop a higher level of expertise in the domain without the need to think critically in other areas (Ennis, 1992). Curricular materials with the majority of categories indicated in the Generalizable paradigm focus on development of abstract skills rather than on domain. Exercises which draw from a variety of domains build critical thinking experience in multiple areas, offering opportunity to include memory cues in the curriculum, a cognitive teaching strategy which facilitates transfer of critical thinking skills across contexts (Glover, Ronning and Bruning, 1990).

The holistic paradigm of critical thinking, by its nature, does not exist independently of the other two, but emerges as a function of creative thinking. Theorists have approached critical thinking as a process which is facilitated by a framework of existing knowledge and experience. Kim (1993) argues: "(m)ental activity deals with sense experience as well as reflection of different ideas in one's mind. The scope and extent of one's experience determines the dimension of the art of one's thinking" (p. 21). When a level of expertise is established, a creative approach to critical thinking can engender unusual applications and unique discoveries.

A selection of commercially prepared critical thinking materials were evaluated according to the model. Materials from four publishers were reviewed. Evaluation of materials reveal a mix between the generalizable and absolutist paradigms with fewer materials moving the learner into the holistic paradigm. Content-specific materials are available from most of the publishers. These materials focus on teaching in the domain. Some materials do not address transfer either within or outside a domain, but speak to well organized, content-rich critical thinking. In contrast, others publish materials framed in abstract skills applied to the domains. Materials which move into holistic critical thinking introduce abstract skills into a variety of scenarios and interject questions which require reflection about societal responsibility. It is important to note that the review of materials is not a comprehensive analysis of all critical thinking materials produced by these publishers, that these four

publishers are the only sources of critical thinking materials for adult literacy application, or that publishers are limited to only one paradigm of critical thinking. The sample, however, does demonstrate the effectiveness of the model in identifying the world views from which materials are developed.

CONCLUSION

Critical thinking is just beginning to be explored from the perspective of the adult literacy learner. While the debate continues as to the appeal of the absolutist paradigm versus the generalizability paradigm, learning goals are being developed for the literacy learner. Divergent meanings and the role of critical thinking in literacy are being offered by national policy and industry. Publishers have responded with curricular materials which vary in their approaches and their design. This research examined three paradigms of critical thinking in the context of literacy. An evaluation model was introduced in which open coding of curricular materials identified categories derived from the literature. This research and the model suggest that the literacy learner has different critical thinking needs which are assigned by entities outside of learner control.

Implications for future research would include exploration of the prevalence of teacher-prepared critical thinking curricular materials, and how such materials compare to their commercially-prepared counterparts in terms of the evaluation model. Approaches to adult learning methodologies - andragogy and pedagogy - within adult literacy curricular materials could be examined to determine if materials teach to learning requirements of adults. Additionally, a look within the literacy classroom to explore how these materials are actually being utilized would offer insight into the effectiveness of the teachers' instructions, as well as reveal any novel approaches for use of the materials.

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CASE STUDIES OF CIVIC EDUCATION: A FRAMEWORK FOR UNDERSTANDING OLDER ADULT BEHAVIOR

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ABSTRACT

The purposes of this paper are twofold: to present contemporary, historical, and literary evidence of civic learning and action in the lives of senior citizens; and to suggest a framework for understanding various levels of their involvement in civic activities. A seven stage civic involvement continuum emerged from "interviews" with living, fictional, and historical older adults. The scope of their commitment to civic action ranges from fulfillment of basic needs through volunteering, to the volunteer becoming an advocate for a specific cause. Implications for adult education practice are suggested.

INTRODUCTION

Political theorists lament the general disengagement of Americans from community affairs, politics, and public life. Older adults, however, with the best voting record of any age group, tend to be well informed about matters of concern to their fellow age cohorts and their community. Their civic involvement is complex and worthy of examination.

PURPOSE

The purposes of this paper are twofold: to present contemporary, historical, and literary evidence of civic learning and action in the lives of senior citizens; and to suggest a framework for understanding various levels of involvement in civic activities. The contributions senior citizens make to the public good are neither well charted nor widely recognized. Most descriptions of old age imply that it is a time of declining power (Matras, 1990; McKenzie, 1986; Cox, 1988). In personal matters older people are said to have less income, less resilience, less assurance of vigorous health, and less influence. They are marginal by all commonly used measures of stature and significance.

Yet we know that older citizens represent a valuable resource to communities. Effective participation by volunteers in community affairs however, presumes some knowledge of the community, of government, and of the problem or issue at hand. It is through adult civic education that relevant information identified, collected, and interpreted becomes knowledge with depth and structure. It is also through such civic education that understanding emerges of the processes by which decisions are made and influence is gained. Adult civic education is defined as "the purposeful and systematic effort to develop in adults the skills and dispositions to function effectively as citizens in their communities as well as in the larger world. The purpose is to both develop understanding and judgment about public issues and to contribute to guided and informed decisions and actions through deliberation, public talk, and dialogue" (Boggs, 1991, p. 5). While policy makers connect learning by older adults primarily with economic growth (Schlacter, 1991), Glendenning and Battersby (1990) maintain that the nature and purpose of education in later life should include the goal of seniors gaining civic competence, and ultimately power, in matters important to them and their communities.

This civic learning is characterized by three conditions. First, it is context specific. Issues such as a national health care system or safe neighborhoods have context in the lives of older citizens. Second, the civic knowledge that older citizens require is both continually expanding and incomplete at the same time. Each week, if not daily, fresh proposals and ideas challenge the capacity of all citizens to respond with intelligence and competence. Third, most community issues have a political dimension, and understanding the political environment requires engagement with it. Since the conditions are dynamic, there is much we cannot know until we try it. Only in the political process are certain kinds of insights possible. Civic knowledge arises out of the interconnection between reflection and actions (Boggs, 1992).

METHODOLOGY

Comparative case studies were developed by conducting structured interviews with three different categories of respondents. Our intent was to construct, in van Manen's terms (1990, p. 19) "an animating, evocative description (text) of human actions, behaviors, intentions, and experiences in the realm of community and public affairs". Our first source of data was older adults, at least sixty years old, selected because of their known involvement in civic action. Our second source, elderly fictional characters from contemporary literature, and third source, senior historical figures, provided rich comparisons.

van Manen defends this approach in his assertion that social scientists can learn about a phenomenon by examining the works of poets, authors, artists, and cinematographers because, "it is in this material that the human being can be found as situated person, and it is in this work that the variety and possibility of human experience may be found in condensed and transcended form" (p. 19). Brieschke (1990) argues that novels have been used both to teach social phenomena and to study it. For our study, a structured interview protocol was used with living respondents, and then was adapted to simulate interviews with literary and historical persons. Our use of comparative data sources also accomplishes a type of triangulation or cross-checking the consistency of information derived by different means (Patton, 1990). Another strength of comparing diverse accounts of civic learning and action by older citizens, according to Silverman (1985), is to reduce the likelihood of interviewer bias. While we were interested in documenting multiple versions of this phenomenon, we felt that it was important to closely model interviews with respondents from literature and history on the same protocol as was used with living persons.

Initially, three criteria were used to select respondents. The first was that their civic involvement was a departure from their normal life course, an exception or unique event in their lives. We should have suspected that this criterion would be difficult to fulfill because of the continuity principle. "Continuity theory holds that in the course of growing older, the individual is predisposed toward maintaining stability in the habits, associations, preferences, and life style that he or she has developed over the years" (Cox, 1988, p. 35). It predisposes a person to maintain desired roles in the social system for as long as possible. "Interviews" with living and historical respondents revealed that their involvement in civic affairs was a lifelong pursuit. Second, we sought out older citizens whose civic learning and action projects began after age 55. Third, the project or issue of concern to respondents must have been related to the general insert or common good. According to Easton (1965), there is something called the interest of the realm, the public, common or national interest, the general good and public welfare, or the good of the tribe, of "our people."

We asked about motivation, actions, behaviors, learning needs, intentions in the realm of community affairs. The uniqueness of our method lies in the comparative work we did with the three types of respondents, constructing case studies from description of learned experience/behaviors, opinions/values, feelings, and knowledge with respect to specific community projects. When reviewing transcripts from five interviews, quoted texts from three literary figures, and biographical details about the two historical figures, we found we were documenting multiple versions of the same phenomenon of civic learning and action.

FINDINGS

Our findings led us to realize that we were witnessing a metamorphosis from volunteer to expert. All ten respondents fit onto a continuum of civic involvement, representing increasing levels of sophistication in terms of commitment and knowledge of the concern as well as processes for bringing influence to bear upon it. Involvement may cease anywhere along the path, but in every case an opportunity emerges, the individual acts often in response to a request, drawing initially on preexisting knowledge and skills, then later relying on further civic learning for increasing expertise. We identify seven stages along this continuum. In the first three stages, basic needs, basic skills, emergent cause, existing knowledge is sufficient. The middle two stages, project defined and project immersion, demand further adult civic education. In the final two stages, becoming an expert and becoming an advocate, learning is engaged in regularly, while the volunteer begins to facilitate the learning of others.

BASIC NEEDS

In this stage all participants were fulfilling basic needs such as to be with old friends, satisfy curiosity, occupy time so as not to dwell on the loss of a loved one, preserve or maintain something valued, fulfill dictates of conscience or religion, or give back to community or society. Sometimes, it was simply wanting to be with one's spouse. The activities could be simple, such as stuffing envelopes, conducting food and clothing drives, or taking notes at meetings. Everyone drew on existing knowledge and skills. It is important that the value system of the volunteer be honored by the organization or activity in which the person is involved. One participant volunteered with a parenting organization because she felt parenting skills were important. She left the organization because she said, "I felt like some of the younger people that were coming in there had different motives for being there then I did, and I didn't want to go along with their motives particularly."

BASIC SKILLS

The term basic is not intended to imply only simple skills such as driving or stuffing envelopes. It is used here to mean the skills or talents the respondents already possessed and brought to the situation as part of their life experience. In this stage all participants have either volunteered or been asked to serve a group in a larger capacity than as a mere observer. One participant had been involved earlier in life with the League of Women Voters. AARP leaders knew this, so "...when they needed a legislative chairman, somebody asked me to do it and I said sure, I'll be legislative chairman of the chapter." For each of them the opportunity emerged and they acted, drawing initially on their pre-existing knowledge and skills. A person may agree to take responsibility in a succession of more complex tasks. These tasks run the gamut from tutoring to following Vice President Gore in addressing the National Council of Churches, as our participants did.

EMERGENT CAUSE

A cause or project deemed worthy of attention and effort has emerged. This cause or project strikes a personal note and is consistent with long held personal values. As one participant described it, "I just simply applied the principles of living which I think my parents helped me learn. The do onto others and all that good stuff that one learns in mainstream Protestantism in which I was raised." This stage requires only an application of what is already known. While the respondents often availed themselves of structured educational opportunities concerning the problem or issue, what was learned usually reinforced some aspect of their previous knowledge. Staying involved seems to hinge on being appreciated for one's contribution especially since victory or progress made in the project/cause will have little impact on the quality of life for the senior citizen volunteer. Unknown others are most likely to be the beneficiaries.

PROJECT DEFINED

This is a pivotal stage on the continuum of civic involvement. The project/cause takes on further definition and increased learning requirements. Entry levels of knowledge and skill are proving inadequate. Protagonists pro and con are more sharply identified and well informed. A process is developed or emerges that gives the voluntary effort some structure within the person's life. While commitment to the cause remains somewhat superficial, it is beginning to intensify. One participant set aside other interests to take a course in reading to improve her skills as a literacy tutor. Another entered this stage by accepting progressively more demanding responsibilities with AARP.

PROJECT IMMERSION

Those remaining have turned a new corner. By this point the volunteers feel a compulsion to read and learn, indeed devour, everything available about the subject that is the focus of their volunteer or advocacy efforts. Knowledge takes on depth and substance, and its power is recognized. New skills are acquired. Specific learning goals are set. Civic education occurs apace. There is a clearer vision of who stands to gain and lose in this situation. The issues are seen as more complex with more clearly delineated goals and objectives. Every visible agency or person becomes a source of information or an object of suspicion. Agencies are critically analyzed for their positions on the issue. For example, the media, churches, and government agencies are examined specifically in terms of whether they are fulfilling their purposes. Educating the public becomes important to have their side of the story heard.

BECOMING AN EXPERT

The process of staying on top of the issue or problem and educating others takes up more and more time, requiring substantial energy and resources. There are jokes about it becoming a full time job. The commitment level is high. People who leave at this point do so because their families or other interests are suffering greatly due to this involvement. If they choose to persist with this activity, it becomes a cause which moves the person into the advocacy stage. persons outside their circle actively seek them out as spokespersons for their cause, as guest speakers and as knowledgeable experts. They may spend a portion of each day on the issue, doing research and learning, networking with other groups going through the same experience. Others turn to them as leaders for information and answers because they have stature, special expertise, and competence.

BECOMING AN ADVOCATE

As advocates, the volunteers seek out opportunities to advance the cause and to assist other groups in other localities. Actively seeking out information and allies is a continuous process. As one participant observes, "I have had the opportunity to travel over the country as a result of my activity in this endeavor. Regardless of where I go, the people I meet seem to have a unity and a distinct purpose in becoming involved in opposing these types of facilities [hazardous waste incinerators]."

SUMMARY OBSERVATIONS

Several observations seem appropriate in light of this study. First, diverse sources of data yielded rich insights about civic learning and action. Furthermore, respondents from none of the data sources had more pertinent or well defined insights than from any other data source. Second, it also became obvious that in the normal course of things, behaviors that are prevalent in later life were present in some form earlier on. Senior citizens are not latent activists any more that they are latent philosophers. It was not possible for us to find cases of senior citizen involvement in civic learning and action that were not presaged by similar behaviors earlier in life, though the senior years often present opportunities for acting on lifelong personal values and convictions. Third, the civic involvement continuum allows us to understand the complexity of voluntary behavior on the part of senior citizen activists. The continuum captures and helps us to understand the diversity of such

contributions toward the public good that are possible among people with widely varying talents and abilities. When asked what advice they would give others regarding involvement in a civic cause, respondents who progressed to the last three stages went into great detail as if telling someone how to set up a business. Respondents in the first three stages were simply enamored with the act of volunteering. Fourth, clearly, a commitment to acquiring the skills of self-directed learning is necessary for movement along the continuum to increasingly sophisticated and dedicated volunteer behaviors. Each of these senior citizen activists reached a point where existing knowledge was insufficient for them to make further contributions. Some of them made an investment in further self directed learning in order to become more informed as well as politically competent.

IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE

Adult educators who seek to assist the civic education and action of senior citizens can do so in a variety of ways. Educational opportunities for seniors should be expanded beyond the hobbyist mentality. Second, educators can assist older adults to explore volunteer opportunities. Third, civic activity may come about naturally given the combination of innate intelligence and exposure to volunteer and educational opportunities abounding in every community. Fourth, teachable moments are particularly rich at two points on the continuum. In moving from stage three, EMERGENT CAUSE to stage four, PROJECT DEFINED, our respondents found themselves in need of process related information and skills. This included such topics as strategic planning, group process, lobbying, and communication. Whereas, in moving from stage four, PROJECT DEFINED, to stage five, PROJECT IMMERSION, our respondents expressed an immediate and intense need to acquire more information about the problem or issue at hand. Adult educators can assist these increasingly self directed learners with information on accessing subject matter experts and with designing programs of community education about public affairs.

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APPLICATION OF ADULT EDUCATION PRINCIPLES TO WORKPLACE LITERACY PROGRAM DESCRIPTIONS

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ABSTRACT

Descriptions of workplace literacy programs were analyzed using qualitative content analysis to determine if the programs were based on concepts of adult education established by a review of the adult education literature. The literature review showed that programs planned using assumptions of adult education are learner-centered with the learner involved in program planning, evaluation, choosing materials, and instruction. Participatory literacy education meets the requirements for learner-centered educational programming.

Redundancy sampling and maximum variation sampling were used to draw a sample of workplace literacy program descriptions from the ERIC data base. These program descriptions were analyzed using criteria for learner-centered program adult-education programs. The analysis found that with few exceptions the criteria were not met.

Reasons for programs not meeting the criteria for adult education program planning include: a gap between theory and practice, lack of readily available information on learner-participation in program planning, a deficit perspective of adult learners, teacher-centered teaching methods, and funding requirements which require educators to use methods which may not meet the criteria for learner-centered education.

INTRODUCTION

Reported lack of educational levels of the American workforce has received a considerable amount of attention in recent years. This attention is due to the fear that worker deficiencies will impact on the competitiveness of American business. Labor market changes and new technology requires workers to have more education than was considered necessary in the past. Some workers have basic skills deficits that need to be remedied. The challenge for industry and educators is to design programs for workers based on educational principles. These educational principles can be found in the literature of adult education.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. Are there concepts of adult education that can be used to plan an educational program, and, if there are, what are they?
2. What characteristics would a workplace literacy program have if based on the concepts of adult education?
3. To what degree are current workplace literacy programs based on the concepts of adult education?

ARE THERE CONCEPTS OF ADULT EDUCATION THAT CAN BE USED TO PLAN AN EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM, AND IF THERE ARE, WHAT ARE THEY?

Several adult educators have commented on the practice of calling a program adult education because adults are in attendance:

...can't call a program of instruction adult education simply because the learners are adults. Simply because individuals who are legally and chronologically adult are in attendance does not make a gathering an automatic example of adult education (Brookfield, 1985a, p.47).

It is inappropriate to attempt to specify the nature of instruction simply by describing the characteristics of the learners. (Valentine, 1985, p.108-109)
There is adult education and there is education for adults. (Brookfield , 1987, p.32)

Planning an educational program based on the assumptions of adult education means that the learner will be involved in the planning, implementation, and evaluation of the program.(See Argyris & Schon, (1977); Bergevin, (1967); Brookfield, (1986); Connelly and Light, (1991); Draper, (1991); Elias & Merriam, (1980); Freire, (1970); Giroux & Pinar, (1981); Heimstra & Sisco, (1990); Knowles, (1980); Laird, (1985); Pine & Horne, (1969); Rogers, (1969); Rosenblum, (1985); Rosenblum & Darkenwald, (1987); Shor, (1987); for more information on learner-centered adult education programs). The principles guiding practice in learner-centered education emphasize the experience of the learner. Curriculum is learner-centered, not subject-centered. The method of teaching/learning is problem solving with the teacher acting as facilitator, helper, and guide, not authority figure.
After a review of the adult education literature, the following characteristics were established for learner-centered educational programs:
Experience and background of the learner are included in the learning process;
Representatives of the learners participate in the planning, implementation and evaluation of the program;
Learners and teachers are equal partners in the learning process;
Learners evaluate their own progress;
Teachers serve as a content resource;
Teachers use a variety of instructional techniques;
Teachers create a classroom where students work collectively;
Teachers provide evaluative criteria to the learners;
Instruction builds on life experiences;
Instruction focuses on issues that have meaning for the learner;
Learners assess their own needs and objectives;
Learners participate in evaluation of instructional activities.

CHARACTERISTICS OF A WORKPLACE LITERACY PROGRAM BASED ON THE CONCEPTS OF ADULT EDUCATION

Characteristics of a workplace literacy program based on the concepts of adult education were drawn from the research of Fingeret and Jurmo (1989), Jurmo (1989a; 1989b), and Soifer, Young, and Irwin (1989). Their research describes a model for workplace education known as participatory literacy education. Participatory literacy education is in agreement with the principles of adult education: both support active roles for the learner in planning and implementation of their educational programs. In a learner-centered workplace program, management, labor, and teachers work together to plan the educational program. Collaborative planning builds on the resources of everyone involved and sends a message to workers and management that education plays a significant part in the maufacturing of quality products.

The following chart shows the similarites between programs planned using the principles of adult education and participatory literacy education:

Table 1

Comparison of Adult Education Principles and Participatory Literacy Education

	Adult Education Principles	Participatory Literacy Education
Experience and background of learner included in learning process	X	X
Representatives of learner participate in the planning, implementation, evaluation of the program	X	X
Learner and teacher equal partners in learning process	X	X
Learner evaluates self	X	X
Teacher serves as a content resource	X	X
Teacher uses a variety of instructional techniques	X	X
Teacher creates a classroom where students work collectively	X	X
Teacher provides evaluative criteria to learners	X	X
Instruction builds on life experiences	X	X
Instruction focuses on issues that have meaning for the learner	X	X
Learners assess own learning needs and objectives	X	X
Learners participate in evaluation of instructional activities	X	X

TO WHAT DEGREE ARE CURRENT WORKPLACE LITERACY PROGRAMS BASED ON THE CONCEPTS OF ADULT EDUCATION?

To answer this quesrtion, a sample of workplace literacy program descriptions was drawn from the ERIC data base. The time parameters for the study were 1985 through February, 1992. The starting date of 1985 was chosen because the current interest in workplace literacy began in the mid-1980s (Jurmo, 1991). No English-as-a-Second Language, workforce, or community literacy programs were included in the sample which was drawn using maximum variation sampling and redundancy sampling (Patton, 1990; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). There were sixteen programs in the sample drawn. After the analysis of twelve program descriptions no new data were discovered and sampling ended.

Qualitative content analysis was used to analyze the workplace literacy programs. Content analysis is the objective, systematic, and general description of the content of a text (Merriam & Simpson, 1984; Holsti, 1969). The purpose is to obtain information for describing and explaining social phenomena. Qualitative content analysis can be used to discover the presence or absence of content characteristics or syndromes as content indicators (George, 1959). In this research, meaning is inferred from the content of the program descriptions to determine whether the programs met the criteria for programs planned using the assumptions of adult education.
During data collection it was discovered that the criteria overlapped and the categories were collapsed to the following:

Program Planning
Learner and Teacher Role in Evaluation
Learner and Teacher Role in Instruction

The program descriptions were analyzed by gathering data on the above criteria. The data were compared to the criteria to determine if the programs were based on the assumptions of adult education. Although there were elements in some programs which met some of the criteria, none of the programs could be considered to be based on the assumptions of adult education. The analysis relied on the programs as written. The programs may have met the requirements of funders but not the requirements of adult education. It is possible that the program descriptions do not accurately represent the events of the programs. It is also possible that the programs were not representative of workplace literacy programs or that workplace literacy programs since February of 1992 are different from those analyzed.

DISCUSSION

The analysis of the program descriptions shows that with a few exceptions, these workplace literacy programs were not based on the assumptions of adult education. Some reasons for the failure of the programs to meet adult education criteria are: resistance from management, funding requirements which do not meet the criteria, lack of readily available information to teachers and planners on adult education and participatory literacy education, and authoritarian and paternalistic attitudes toward learners.

This study should be seen as an exploratory study of workplace literacy. It has explored a topic to familiarize the researcher and subsequent audiences (Babbie, 1975). It has provided information that could lead to more detailed study of how adult education principles can be used to plan workplace literacy programs.

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CROSSING THE RUBICON: FROM MOTIVATION TO VOLITION IN ADULT LEARNING

Sean Courtney, Ed.D. and Kate Speck

ABSTRACT

Adult education researchers have developed a sophisticated picture of the factors responsible for participation in adult education. We have a less clear picture, however, of what it takes for adults to succeed as learners once they have committed to the task. While motivation is a significant factor in 'pre-class' and in-class success, we need other constructs such as volition, goal-setting, self-regulation and a range of meta-cognitive processes to add richness and complexity to our picture of the adult as learner. This paper explores these processes and considers their utility for the field of adult and continuing education.

DESCRIPTION OF THE ISSUE

The extraordinary growth in the number of adult learners in the past several years has caused adult educators and institutions to take notice of issues impacting students, faculty, and learning environments (Aslanian & Brickell, 1988). Researchers have developed a sophisticated picture of one such issue, namely the motivation that leads adults to participate in continuing education (Merriam & Caffarella, 1991; Courtney, 1992). We have a less clear picture, however, of what it takes for adults to succeed as learners once in the classroom. In other words, with some notable exceptions (e.g. Smith, 1991), research tends to stop at the point where the learner "crosses the Rubicon," from a desire to further his or her education to a commitment to participate and persist until the goal is reached, from thinking about being a learner to being committed-as-a-learner. There has been a lack of attention to the variables impacting the success and failure of learning in the adult classroom. This issue and possible responses to it are the subject of this proposal.

Our basic argument is that motivation on its own cannot account for long-term success as an adult learner. While motivation is significant for the individual's choice of goals and his or her general enthusiasm for learning, it takes volition and related processes, i.e. goal-setting, self-regulation, meta-cognition, we would argue, to cross the Rubicon and translate that interest and enthusiasm into effective action. Volition is needed to explain the follow-through and the ability to maintain intentionality in the face of distracting and counter-motivational tendencies. Crossing the Rubicon, a phrase from military history, is used to capture the idea that there is a certain demarcation point before which the learner may yet abandon an enterprise and beyond which one becomes committed to action. The challenge for researchers is to discover the key dimensions of volitional activity which can lead to the implementation of successful teaching and support strategies by adult educators.

The purpose of this study includes (a) the introduction (or reintroduction) of the concept of volition into the adult education literature, (b) the construction and testing of a model and instrument designed to measure individual dimensions of volition and action-orientation, and (c) the design of interventions to support motivation and volition within a variety of adult learning environments.

IMPORTANCE OF THE ISSUE TO RESEARCH AND PRACTICE

We believe that the issue of what happens to adults once they become learners is important for both research and practice. For research, it is important that we move beyond current paradigms, e.g. the focus on Houle-inspired motivational orientations, to take advantage of exciting new developments in psychology which focus on the learner's ability to initiate and sustain effective programs of action once motivation to act has commenced. From the perspective of practice, it could be argued that while current research has added to our knowledge base of what it takes to get adults into a learning environment, it tells the practitioner little of what to do to motivate the learner once in the class. This is where we believe the concept of volition can be of help.

VOLITION AND RELATED CONCEPTS IN EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

This project addresses specific new advances in the fields of psychology and educational psychology for the potential to reinvent the adult learning classroom. Contemporary research in the area of motivation and volition encompasses both laboratory-type situations (Halisch and Kuhl, 1987; Heckhausen and Gollwitzer, 1987; Kuhl, 1984) as well as "practical" investigations of areas such as weight loss, vocational choice, and binge eating (Lazarick, Fishbein, Loiellio, and Howard 1988). One of the more significant of these practice areas is the application of volition-related constructs to classroom learning and academic achievement (Corno, 1993).

At the same time, it is difficult to study volitional processes without discussing constructs normally associated with them. We have, therefore, included within the orbit of the present project, contemporary theory and research related to motivation, goals and goal setting, and self-regulation.

VOLITION

There is currently much philosophical debate about the exact nature of volition as a construct (Adams and Mele, 1992; McCann, 1974; Odegard, 1988; Ripley, 1974), and this disagreement is reflected in empirical attempts to research dynamics of the concept. While some philosophers have dismissed volition in theories of action by arguing that the concept can be handled by a concept like "trying", situated between the intention to do something and the doing of it (Adams & Mele, 1992), there is some agreement that volition is a necessary construct and "consists in willing an event to occur" (Odegard, 1988, p. 141). Volition is judged by some to be an aspect of cognition, implying that "people possess the power to think and not to think" (Pervin, 1992). Deci & Ryan (1981) define volition as the ability of individuals to self-initiate behaviors and thus provide the impetus to choose actions which lead to effectual impact on or management of the environment.

Call it willing, will-power, control, self-discipline or whatever, it is clear that in volition we have a notion which vastly pre-dates the advent of science. As the New Testament notes, the spirit is willing, but the flesh is weak. To Julius Kuhl and his colleagues at the Max-Planck-Institute in Munich can be attributed the resurgence of interest in the importance of volitional processes to motivation and action. Kuhl bases his beliefs in the importance and function of volition on the fact that people in their normal lives distinguish between an "intention to do something and the ability to control the enactment of that intention" (Kuhl, 1984, p. 100).

Kuhl situates his project within the "psychology of human action" which is concerned, he argues, with three sets of questions: those concerning <u>motivation</u> or the generation of goals and intentions; those concerned with <u>action control</u> or the ability of the person to carry out intentions and to guard against counterintentional tendencies, and finally, those concerned with <u>performance control</u> or the persistence of action and its effective management.

Applied to the field of Adult Education, this might mean, first, a concern for the factors responsible for a person's orientation or interest in learning (motivation); second, one's ability to follow through on intentions despite forces to the contrary (action), and third, an individual's persistence in the learning environment as well as the strategies enacted to enhance success as a learner (performance). Kuhl's interest, as does ours, lies with volitional processes or those controlling action and performance. Like him, we believe that further progress in this area lies with the exploration of volition and action which we see as the factors responsible for implementation and persistence.

Subsequent work appears to confirm the putative distinction between "weighing" and "willing", between "pre-decisional" or motivational conditions and "post-decisional" or volitional action states (Heckhausen & Gollwitzer, 1987; Gollwitzer, Heckhausen, & Ratajcak,1990). Kuhl's work has begun to reach into the educational community most notably in the work of Corno (1986, 1993), who has argued that "volition can be viewed as one of several key . . . aptitudes for education, that is, a measurable potential for responsibility, dependability, or conscientiousness predictive of success in educational settings" (Corno, 1993, p. 15).

As an example of volition in action, Corno cites the case of class assignments. During what she terms the pre-decisional phase, students and teachers are in a sense engaged in a process of negotiation which sets the parameters of the various aspects of the task, taking into account the students' concerns. It is during this phase that motivational constructs are dominant: students establish expectations, and assign values to the task, while at the same time expressing feelings about doing the assignment (Pintrich & DeGroot, 1990). Once, however, the commitment to the task has been made, students enter a new or post-decisional phase:

> Crossing the Rubicon from motivation to volition creates different work conditions and different information-processing demands. Not incidentally, a classroom environment which permits negotiation over goals is one way that teachers can consciously move away from persistent demands for compliance, while concurrently providing opportunities for volitional development to occur (p. 16).

As Corno and other educational researchers see it, volition differs from motivation in that the latter as responsible for the choice of goals, while the former is accountable for the function of their management and implementation. According to this model, volition becomes a "metamotivational" process, which "directs and controls intellectual, emotional and behavioral energy towards academic goals and other goals" (p. 15-16).

Interest in the relevance of volition to the educational debate occurs within a general context in which there has been a renewed focus an extra- or meta-cognitive factors responsible for academic achievement and overall success as a learner. We look briefly at some of the more salient of these concepts, particularly those which hold promise for adult education.

MOTIVATION, GOAL-SETTING AND SELF-REGULATION

After a period of relative neglect, motivation has reemerged as a focus of educational and work-related research (Pervin, 1992). New models have sprung up (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Schrunk, 1991; Schiefele, 1991), along with new instruments (Vallerand, Pelletier, Blais, Briere, Senecal & Vallieres, 1992) to measure the interaction of cognitive and motivational processes. Most favored appears to be the Expectancy-Valence theory, familiar to readers of adult education literature as constituting the basis of "decision model" theories of participation (Courtney, 1992). It underlies, for example, Kuhl's orientation to motivation as well as that of Paul Pintrich and his colleagues.

Pintrich has been most active in bringing the renewed interest in motivation into the context of schooling. For Pintrich, the problem has to do with learning or "conceptual change." How is this accomplished? Traditionally, the focus has been on what alterations take place in cognitive structures and schemata which make it likely that learning will occur. Such models, however, tend to be weakly predictive of success in the classroom, and tend to exclude factors which appear, to teachers at least, to play a significant role in the student's academic achievement. The most significant of these factors, according to Pintrich are: (a) "individual motivational beliefs about the self as a learner", and (b) "the role of the individual in a learning community" (Pintrich, Marx & Boyle, 1993 p. 173). Pintrich has gone on to conduct a series of provocative studies intended to show the

interactional effects of motivation and self-regulation on classroom academic performance. So far this work has generated a great deal of interest and appears to hold promise for adult learning.

Central to the current investigation of motivational processes is the concept of self-regulation. This concept ushers in the other major extra-cognitive and cognitively-orientated influences on the learning process that have received recent attention. These include the meta-cognitive dimensions of planning and monitoring. Also included are the management and control of effort with respect to learning tasks, and actual cognitive strategies such as mnemonics, that students use to aid memory and recall.

Apart from the work of Pintrich, other researchers in this area have conducted successful tests of models and instruments to measure self-regulation and to disclose its influence on academic performance and success (Linder & Harris, 1992; Zimmerman, 1986). There is an obvious semantic if not concrete link between the notion of self-regulation and that of self-direction, the concept favored by adult educators. Clearly, research on self-regulation with children and other school-aged populations needs to be monitored, and where possible replicated with older adults both as a way of gaining a deeper understanding of adult learning processes and of linking up with a larger enterprise which promises strategies for assisting the adult learner to enhance his/her educational experience.

Finally, it is difficult to discuss motivation, or volition for that matter, without implying something about goals and goal-setting. Usually, when we say that someone has a motive for learning, we mean that there is a goal to which that activity is linked. While goals and purposes were banished from earlier behavioristically-oriented research, there has always been a curiosity about their significance to purposeful social action particularly in relation to intentions and plans (Miller, Galanter and Pribram, 1960).

Plans and goals have assumed ascendancy in the recent attempt to construct a psychology of human action (Oppenheimer & Vaksiner, 1991). In the work of Carol Dweck and her associates the significance of the goal concept to learning has taken on a new meaning. Dweck is noted mostly for her distinction between "learning" and "performance" goals (Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Elliot & Dweck, 1988). The former are hypothesized to produce superior learning insofar as the learner so motivated adopts a 'mastery' strategy, one which accepts challenge and overcomes obstacles. Performance goals, on the other hand, are oriented towards the judgment of others and trying not to lose face, which leads, according to Dweck, to performance deterioration and a sense of helplessness when the "going gets tough."

LINKING RESEARCH TO PRACTICE

Together, the concepts of motivation (newly redefined), volition, goal-setting and self-regulation promise a new departure in researching the related phenomena of participation and persistence in adult education.

First, with respect to participation it is clear that for too long now we have focused our attention exclusively on motivational processes, even though the small amount of empirical research which does exist in this area tends to demonstrate that motivation on its own does not account for successful engagement in learning activities. In sum, the focus has been on "weighing" rather than "willing" (Gollwitzer, Heckhausen, & Ratajcak, 1990), on the factors responsible for the evaluation of alternatives and the eventual choice of a goal, i.e. participation, rather than the factors responsible for continued learning activity and success as a learner. It is no longer sufficient to speak of the tri-partite typology of motivation, be it goal, activity or learning (Houle 1961/84), and leave it at that.

Second, and again with a few notable exceptions (e.g. Darkenwald, 1987; Main, 1979; Tracy & Schutterburg, 1986 and the work on andragogy in the classroom), adult education researchers have paid little attention to extra-cognitive processes in the classroom or to the meta-cognitive factors responsible for academic success. Now would appear to be a propitious moment to turn aside from

our blind obeisance to ideologies which appear to commit us to teaching adults as our theory says they ought to be taught, and instead to investigate, with an open-mind, the relevance of volition, goal-setting and self-regulation to the world of the adult as a learner.

We believe that the time is ripe for a reinvigorated study of the adult classroom which examines the influence on academic success of (a) pre-class and in-class subject-related and environmentally-sensitive motivational processes and (b) in-class motivational factors only, one which also incidentally takes into account the phenomenon of the class as a "learning community" (Pintrich et al., 1993) In particular, with respect to motivation, we wish to know which model seems to offer the most promise for the investigation of in-class learning outcomes and processes. For example, does it have to be an expectancy-valence model or do models such as Dweck's and Deci's hold more promise? With respect to volition, we are chiefly interested in considering whether commitment to a program of study in itself is sufficient to guarantee success, or whether there are dimensions--volitional and metacognitive--of the learning process which are required to maintain the subject's interest and commitment to learn.

Finally, can we teach or train these meta-cognitive skills of volition and the like, just as we teach subjects like math, language, etc.? Recent theory and research on volition and academic self-regulation appear to affirm that possibility. Although few studies have been conducted to test this theoretical notion (e.g. Hughes & Martray, 1991), both theoretical and empirical evidence from several perspectives has suggested the promise of social-cognitive approaches to the acquisition of volitional strategies. Our own research involves the development and preliminary assessment of a specially designed intervention for academically under-prepared adult students and investigates its effects on the cognitive, motivational, and volitional components of academic self-regulation.

At a time when adults and other non-traditional populations are entering the postsecondary system in ever greater numbers, it is vital that we understand the factors which lead to successful and failed integration into structured learning environments. Contemporary research on motivation, volition and related constructs promise an exciting new departure in our understanding of learning processes and their impact on personal, work and community domains. This work, we believe, is vital to the field of adult education which has had a long and auspicious history of dealing with factors other than cognition responsible for success as a learner.

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A LIVING AMOEBA OR A TEXTBOOK TOPIC? CONCEPTIONS OF INTEGRATED, THEME-BASED INSTRUCTION IN ADULT EDUCATION

John Dirkx and Suzanne Prenger

ABSTRACT

Adult educators who practice within more "academically-oriented" programs, such as adult basic education (ABE), GED preparation, and community college programs, are increasingly being encouraged to "contextualize" their instruction. This directive is generally interpreted as "making the content more relevant and meaningful to the lives of the learners" and "relating it more to the learner's particular life contexts." Two ideas that attempt to conceptualize these efforts more systematically are "theme-based instruction" and "curricular integration," respectively (Brady, 1989; Drake, 1993; Jacobs, 1991; Kovalik, 1993; Ministry for Advanced Education and Job Training, 1987). Although these concepts are becoming increasingly popular within the field, few studies have attempted to determine how they are being interpreted and implemented by practitioners in the field. The purpose of this study was to describe how ABE and GED practitioners who claim to utilize the concepts of theme-based instruction and curricular integration think about and organize their practices around these ideas. Implications for preparing teachers and for fostering change in practice are discussed.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Research on the practice of teaching is experiencing significant change, reflecting considerations of power and voice, knowledge, and methods of scholarly inquiry (Richardson, 1994). Characteristic of this change is a dramatic shift from "process-product" research (Brophy & Good, 1986; Gage, 1985) with an emphasis on effective teaching behaviors (Galbraith, 1991), towards a more "hermeneutic purpose of understanding how teachers make sense of teaching and learning" (Richardson, 1994, p. 5). These studies typically employ qualitative designs, using observation within particular learning settings and interviews with teachers (e.g. Dirkx & Spurgin, 1992) to examine the nature of teachers' knowledge, beliefs, planning behaviors, and implicit theories related to their students, their classroom actions, or their attempts to bring about changes in their practices (Clark & Peterson, 1986).

The study reported here reflects the qualitative approach to studying teacher thinking in adult basic and literacy education, with a focus primarily on instructional planning. Several reasons can be given for pursuing this form of research in adult education. Despite an abundance of educational prescriptions and credos (Brookfield, 1986) within the field, relatively few scholars have systematically studied curricular or instructional processes within adult education settings. For example, over 100 models of program planning are available in the literature but only a handful of studies are reported that investigate how planners actually design and develop educational programs for adults (Sork & Caffarrella, 1989). Numerous reports and books have been published which prescribe how to teach adults and facilitate their learning (see Brookfield, 1986, for a dated but comprehensive review of this issue). Yet, empirical studies of the work of teachers and facilitators in adult education are uncommon.

There is also reason to believe that the "gap" between the research and theory reported in the literature and the practice of classroom teachers in adult education may be even wider than is commonly believed. Research on the thinking, beliefs, and classroom actions of school teachers clearly demonstrates that teachers think about their practices in ways that are fundamentally different from the prescriptions and propositions derived from formal research and theory (Richardson, 1994). For example, the prescriptive literature suggests that, in instructional planning, teachers should start with objectives. Summaries of the research on teacher planning, however, indicate that even experienced teachers seldom start with objectives (Borko & Niles, 1987). Support for this "research-practice gap" is also evident in adult education. Studies have demonstrated important differences in

what planners actually do and what the models of program planning prescribe (Cervero & Wilson, 1994; Sork & Caffarella, 1989), and what adult basic education teachers believe the needs of their students are and the nature of instructional behaviors actually manifest with these learners in classroom settings (Dirkx & Spurgin, 1992).

Such research raises questions about the nature of knowledge that adult educators use to guide and shape their practices. The norm among many educators and policy-makers is that this knowledge is objective, explicit, and abstract, leading to linear descriptions of planning and to technical-rational conceptions of instruction. The research on teacher thinking summarized earlier, however, suggests that this knowledge is inherently practical, situated rather than abstract, contextual, relational (Richardson, 1994), tacit, and always experiential (Kagan, 1990). Rather than viewing teachers as passive recipients of "expert" knowledge, this form of research points to teachers as active participants in the generation and construction of knowledge that guides their practices. These findings also have implications regarding the extent to which and how teachers change their practices. Studies of school teachers suggest that, when change is voluntarily engaged in and undertaken by teachers, rather than imposed on them by others, teachers are changing their practices all the time (Richardson, 1994).

In addition to scholarly curiosity prompting inquiry into teacher thinking and instructional practice, there is a compelling issue which further motivated these researchers. In one midwestern state, in a two year period in a program nationally recognized for its quality, nearly 70% of students who embarked on GED studies withdrew before completing their goals (Dirkx & Jha, 1992). Several scholars in adult basic and literacy education have suggested that one way to address this problem of student attrition is to provide instructional content that is more meaningful and relevant to the contexts and lives of the adult learners, rather than operate out of a "deficit" view of the students (Auerbach, 1992; Dirkx & Spurgin, 1992). This research provides the basis for understanding the notions of theme and integration as reflected in the practice and the reflection of adult educators.

METHOD

A qualitative, multi-case study design was used to collect information on theme-based and integrated instruction from three different kinds of adult education settings: a) workplace literacy, b) family literacy, and c) adult basic education. The sites reflected geographic, administrative and cultural diversity including a large urban east coast inner city program; a city university outreach program and an urban labor union program, both comprised of recent immigrants, day laborers, unemployed and working students; a rural industry training program in a midwestern farming region; a midwestern public school family literacy program; a west coast community college family literacy and ABE program with state-wide administrative support. The learners reflected gender, cultural, employment and economic diversity as well as variations in immigration status, level of attainment in public schools and on the job training experiences: Dominican cab drivers, African-American store clerks, unemployed Caucasian single mother, skilled midwestern welders and journeymen returning for their GED and job advancement training, among many others. The instructors varied with respect to years of formal training, teaching styles, personalities, and comfort with issues of life context.

Purposive criterion-based sampling provided for maximum variation within ABE settings. We selected sites that used or attempted to employ an integrated theme based approach to curriculum at GED or pre-GED level; had an exemplary teacher in the sense that he/she is recognized as a teacher who is learner centered and process oriented with a high level of teaching skill or for whom academic objectives are grounded in life context of individual learner; could be visited in the 1993/1994 academic year and allowed for the diversity discussed above. Data collection methods were carried out over an eight month period and included direct observation and videotaping of the instructional settings, follow-up interviews with teachers in these settings, program administrators and review of archival material. Data were analyzed using qualitative methods advocated by Merriam for case study research. Researchers employed Spradley's thematic coding of ethnographic research to develop themes and concepts from the teacher interviews.

FINDINGS

Analysis revealed four different notions of theme and three key conceptions of integration. The four conceptions of themes were: a) the "living amoeba", b) the near experience, c) the far experience, and d) textbook topic. The "living amoeba" concept of theme refers to instruction that finds its own path within the direct experiences of the participating learners. Specific themes change as instruction seeks to respond to the emerging interests of the group (e.g. dealing with a difficult neighbor; adjusting to job loss or changing technology; personal and social keys to employability). The "living amoeba" metaphor stems from a teacher's attempt to explain her planning process for integrated theme-based instruction. Workbook exercises, pre-planned goals and objectives, discussion topics and GED competencies were all part of her repertoire but were limited in utility as her students arrived with problems of evictions, poor nutrition, job loss, alcoholism and the welfare system predominant in their minds. "I'm like an amoeba, one cell, constantly moving and changing with the concerns of my students", she laughed, "one big hungry monster!" She engulfs the life context and personal situations of her students and it is ever-present as she plans curriculum and negotiates the days activities. This conception of theme implies a constructivist and participatory approach toward planning as well as comfort with change and the unexpected. This teacher viewed her self as a facilitator, a co-learner with her students and involved them in curricular decisions. Goals and objectives were not limited to the acquisition of the GED, but focused beyond the certificate to a changed life.

The "near experience" concept of theme is also grounded in the concrete life experiences of the learners but is typically defined by the instructor in an attempt to relate to the learners (e.g. health care reform and its impact on the health care workers union membership). In this case, we found that the issue related to the students who were all health workers, but that the impetus for the theme as a point of departure for curriculum had come from union leadership who administered the program. The students showed minimial interest in this topic. Many instructors viewed employment as a key for future success of their students, providing another example of theme near to the experience of the learners. Approaches to the theme varied from "Steps to Employability", how to fill out applications to self-assessments of one's personal skills and career interests. These examples are grounded in the context of the learners but do not have the process of negotiation of content found in our "amoeba". One instructor reported constraints of time and funding impinged on his ability to explore and negotiate curriculum content with his learners. In his class of recent immigrants, he selected themes and issues from the Caribbean as a way of providing familiar content, drawing on the experience of the learners in conversation while teaching new skills. The locus of responsibility for the content was his and life context of the learner was in his mind as he made choices, but was not the foundation of the curriculum.

The themes of "far experience" and "textbook topic" were encountered less frequently among participants attempting to be innovative in curriculum integration. The "far experience" concept of theme refers to collective life experiences in the abstract, but are not grounded in individual life experiences. One example is that of pattern-making in the garment workers union and of the training components of a workplace literacy program. Frequently job requirements dictated curriculum in this concept. Learning to budget also was a theme found in each program and reflects this notion of collective life experience. The "textbook topic" concept of theme refers to content that is felt to be of general interest to the learners within the setting (e.g. understanding subway signs or calculating percentages at a discount sale). Packaged workbooks and materials from major publishing companies offer a plethora of these materials.

Conceptions of integration defined in this study include: a) core curriculum, b) disciplined-based curriculum, and c) the "onion" curriculum. The core curriculum represents an interdisciplinary integration of traditional curricular subjects, such as teaching science, language arts, and writing together. The discipline-based conception of integration reflects an emphasis on a particular discipline and relating this discipline to the various themes that are guiding instruction, such as teaching the theme of the Caribbean within the math or geography class. The "onion" curriculum

refers to a multilayered approach to academic competencies grounded in the life context of the learner. Any given activity is viewed as addressing multiple purposes. We peel away the many layers of a theme, each providing a new level of insight. The competency is learned but with each layer, we probe the meaning of the competency to the situation of the learner. Basic skills such as reading, writing, math and communication are intertwined with "underlying skills that enable people to use their skills to succeed in what they set out to do" (Colette, 1992) such as team work, critical thinking, problem solving, self esteem, among others. Often emotional issues surface as we speak to the life context of each learner and this approach weaves them into the curriculum as opposed to editing them outside the realm of instruction.

APPLICATION OF THESE FINDINGS TO PRACTICE

When the conceptions of theme are combined with those of integration, a matrix of twelve different conceptions of ITB is possible (available at the conference). These different conceptions represent fundamentally different ways of thinking about and implementing ITB instruction. The findings provide both a theoretical and practical basis for using ITB instruction within adult education settings. Each of these conceptions have their strengths as well as their limitations. Instructors may find themselves comfortable with one approach and insecure in another depending on their tacit and explicit belief structures and their beliefs about the needs of their students. The specific context also needs to be taken into account as one considers which approach to use. As instructors more clearly understand these multiple notions of theme and integration, their curricular choices may relate in more meaningful ways to the life-context of the learners and the constraints of their practice settings.

CONCEPTIONS OF THEME	CONCEPTIONS OF INTEGRATION		
	Core	Discipline	Onion
The "living amoeba"	*What I'm Good At	*AIDS *Child Immunization	*Dealing With a Difficult Neighbor *Experiencing the Welfare System
The Near Experience	*Nutrition *Getting Job	*Health Care *The Caribbean *Getting a Job	*Health Care Reform *Keys to Employability
The Far Experience	*Understanding Want Ads	*Pattern Making *Budget	*Making a Family Budget
Textbook Topics	*Percents at Sales *Subway Signs	*Compound Substances	*Life History

Adult basic education instructors report they have little, if any, additional time, to reflect on and document what they do. One reported she learned to integrate GED competencies into life skills by "years and years of trial and error". Another who taught several classes admitted that she avoided an integrative approach because she knew it took time for planning and she didn't have the energy or time to get to know her students and their needs. Yet another felt insecure about the administrative support for this approach. "We are funded based on the numbers of students we have go through our program. With open-entry, open-exit, I feel that I'm always beginning a new process of negotiation with the group. Students who have been there longer want to move on." Administrative constraints were frequently voiced. Those who were practicing the integrated theme-based approach felt that these were legitimate issues, but argued strongly that the benefits for the learner's ultimate goal far outweighed these technical barriers. One unintended outcome of this project was to provide the opportunity for such reflection which results in improved practice. Each instructor interviewed reported new insights into their own practice and probed for reasons why they did what had become

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habit and unreflective practice. Several teachers reflected on their philosophy of education and others began to articulate the development of a philosophy.

The study of thematic instruction and curricular integration in adult education provides a potentially rich basis for understanding the nature of teacher thinking in ABE/GED and how their beliefs reflect the nature of knowledge used to guide their practices. There is far more prescriptive information available on how to "thematize" instruction and integrate curriculum than how these ideas are being interpreted and implemented within adult learning settings (Auerbach, 1992; Colette, et.al., 1992; Drake, 1993; Jacobs, 1991; Kovalik, 1993; Ministry for Advanced Education and Job Training, 1987). We know precious little about how teachers think about or act on these ideas or the extent to which their thinking reflects or diverges from the prescriptive literature. Such studies could provide valuable insights into understanding the nature of knowledge that adult education teachers utilize in their practices. Finally, theme-based instruction and curricular integration may be viewed as innovations within adult basic education and GED preparation programs. Study of how these innovations are being approached by practitioners can help us develop a better understanding of how changes in practice are or could be facilitated within these settings.

In summary, qualitative studies of the thinking of ABE and GED teachers about thematic instruction and curricular integration can contribute to our understanding of the knowledge that these teachers use to guide their practices and how this knowledge is structured. Furthermore, this line of research can serve to enhance our views of change in practice within these settings. This research holds important implications for incorporating integrated curriculum and thematic instruction within ABE and GED programs, how we prepare educators to work in these settings, and how to foster change in practice.

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THE INFLUENCE OF SELF-OTHER RELATIONSHIPS IN CONSTRUCTIVIST APPROACHES TO ADULT LEARNING

John M. Dirkx and Terri A. Deems

ABSTRACT

The idea of learning as meaning-making represents a central focus of both research and practice in adult education, and is increasingly being framed within the constructivist tradition of cognitive psychology. This view of cognitive restructuring, however, fails to recognize the inherently relational, emotional, and affect-laden nature of constructivist learning. We present a critique of the cognitively-oriented approaches to constructivist learning in adult education and, relying on intersubjectivity theory, explore the importance of the social and interpersonal contexts to the process of meaning-making in adult learning.

Early in the semester, adult learners in a course on group dynamics formed small learning teams, organized along the principles of constructivist learning (Duffy & Jonassen, 1992). A major goal of these teams was to complete a small research project designed to study dynamics and structure within a small group functioning "out in the field." The teams were to select a group for study, identify any problems or issues their group may be experiencing, interpret these problems from a theoretical perspective within group dynamics, and to develop recommendations for addressing the issues identified. At the end of the semester, each team made a presentation to the rest of the class and handed in a report that was to be collaboratively authored. The team's efforts were graded by the course instructor and each member received the same grade. Team members were expected to keep reflective journals on the team's processes and development, as well as the larger group in the course.

One team, the "Trio," composed of two women and one man, ranging in age from late twenties to mid-forties, all white, all working full-time in different areas and all interested in training, made one of the most interesting and theoretically grounded presentations of the class. Their report was well organized, clearly written, and met the bulk of the criteria for this assignment. The instructor judged their oral and written performances to be the best of the teams in the class. Yet, examination of the team members' journals revealed difficult and often frustrating internal team communication and developmental processes. All three members of this team independently noted in their journals that they "had got the job done" but that the experience had not been at all satisfying emotionally. They identified implicit struggles with authority issues, an inability to get really into the project until late in the semester despite frequent meetings, and considerable tension among team members for much of the semester. They all observed that the only way they survived and were able to finish the project on time was due to the strong leadership exercised by one of the members, who essentially took control of the project and largely directed it to its completion. All of the members recognized that they should have spent more time early getting to know each other better, "building relationships" and developing a more trusting climate.

THE RESEARCH ISSUE

This vignette is an admittedly anecdotal account of one team's experience with a constructivist approach to learning. Constructivism stresses active roles for learners in the creation of their knowledge and the structures in which this knowledge is created (Giddens, 1979; Lave, 1988). Emphasis is placed on instructional techniques and strategies, such as experiential, cooperative, and active learning methods (Duffy & Jonassen, 1992), reflective practice (Schon, 1987), and participatory practitioner research as staff development (Oja & Smulyan, 1989; Smith & Pyrch, 1993). Constructivist approaches stand in sharp contrast to much of formal education, which is

predicated on the assumption that knowledge and meaning are acquired and internalized from our surroundings. We believe that constructivist approaches to teaching and learning are more consistent with the nature of knowledge and how we come to know (Lave, 1988).

In this paper, however, we argue that current representations of constructivism within adult education are dominated with concerns about learner cognition and minimize the ways in which intrapsychic and interpersonal dynamics shape participants' perceptions of the meaning and significance of what it is they are learning. Furthermore, we argue that these dynamics are not merely "noise" within the instructional field - they represent "deep structures" which serve to mediate and constrain the very nature of what is learned. We propose that the psychodynamic frameworks of self psychology (Kohut, 1971; 1984) and intersubjective theory (Stolorow, Atwood, & Brandchaft, 1994) provide a conceptual basis for better understanding the nature of these deep structures and how they shape the meaning-making processes of constructivist learning. Our argument is grounded in and framed by our work with adults in small learning groups.

CONSTRUCTIVIST APPROACH TO HUMAN LEARNING AND CHANGE

The branch of constructivism that seems to be most influential in understanding human change and learning is psychological constructivism (Mahoney, 1991). Three fundamental assumptions characterize this form of constructivism (we are relying heavily here on Mahoney, 1991). First, we actively participate in the construction and experience of the wide variety of human thought, feeling, and action. We anticipate, organize, and make sense of our experiences through personal life theories, schemata, or scripts. The heart of learning, however, is novelty, which is experienced to the extent that our use of existing schemata and other constructs fail to organize and make sense of our experiences. Often, however, we inappropriately project past schemata and familiar personal life theories onto our experiences, eliminating the possibility of novelty. Without novelty, life will continue its normal course and we will not experience significant change and learning.

Second, in structuring our experiences, tacit, abstract processes predominate over more concrete and explicit processes. Constructivists recognize the distinction between deep and surface structures, and between the unconscious and the conscious parts of the self. Surface structures refer to the concrete and explicit aspects of our experiences, such as the content of what is said and the responses elicited by this content. Deep structures are the more tacit and abstract processes we use to order our experiences, such as ways in which we recognize human faces or the knowledge used in the performance of skills that have become largely automatic (e.g. bike-riding or swimming). Constructivists point out that many day-to-day experiences are resolved without reference to explicit awareness, reflecting deeper and largely tacit organizing structures or processes we bring to our experiences. Stated succinctly by Polanyi (1958), "we know more than we can tell and we can tell nothing without relying on our awareness of things we may not be able to tell" (p. x). Finally, individuals are co-constructor of their personal realities, interdependently with their social and physical environments. These social and physical realities represent constraints on what we are able and not able to do within our part of the universe.

Applied to the experiences of the Trio, constructivist thought suggests that they approached the assigned project with "pre-existing," deep structures that were largely abstract and implicit, such as assumptions about learning, communicating and working with others, trust, and authority. These structures allowed the team members to organize and make sense of this "new" situation by helping them to anticipate what to expect and organizing what did happen in some sensible way. They were not ready, however, to constructively respond to the socio-emotional issues which arose in their lives together. The disturbing lack of direction and the sense of "spinning their wheels" were experiences that were fairly novel to these members, who were used to structure, explicit goals, and specific directions. To openly name and seek to understand these experiences in a new way would result in a fair amount of anxiety for the members. For example, they could have recognized early on a lack of trust in the team and focused on dealing with this issue. Within the social and physical realities of their specific team experience, they could have co-constructed personal realities of their experience

which would have been more emotionally satisfying and less frustrating. They also would have learned something about intra-team dynamics and how to more effectively deal with them. As Mahoney (1991) reminds us, the experience of novelty and making sense of it within our lives is the essence of human change and learning. Instead, the Trio chose to interpret the socio-emotional issues within familiar and well-used personal constructs, such as denial and emotional withdrawal, thus avoiding the need to deal with the novelty and its corresponding anxiety. In the process, they lost the opportunity for significant learning and change.

SELF-OTHER RELATIONSHIPS AS DEEP STRUCTURES IN CONSTRUCTIVIST LEARNING

Learner experiences of constructivist strategies are inherently relational, emotional, and affect-laden. As participants in these educational methods, adults interact and work together, interpersonally and as a group, to actively and often implicitly construct their own knowledge and meaning. Despite the emphasis on the importance of social and interpersonal contexts in these methods, constructivist approaches to learning are dominated by cognitivist approaches (Cognition and Technology Group, 1992; Cunningham, 1992; Mezirow, 1991; Perkins, 1992). Stress is placed on the structuring and restructuring of knowledge and beliefs related to the topic or explicit goals of the group. In cognitively-oriented forms of constructivist learning, strategies reflect a focus on the concrete and explicit dimensions of the experience (i.e. surface structures), such as patterns and skills of communication, problem-solving and decision-making strategies, and role structures. Little if any attention is given to the intrapsychic and interpersonal processes (i.e. deep structures) which mediate learning within these contexts (Mahoney, 1991).

Research into the structures and processes of learning teams and groups, however, strongly points to the centrality of complex interpersonal and group issues such as belonging, engagement, and authority (Smith & Berg, 1987) in the meaning-making processes of these learning settings. The ways in which learners organize and make sense of these issues largely determine the overall quality and meaning that learners derive from these experiences (Nias, 1993). As the experiences of the Trio suggest, minimizing or ignoring the intrapsychic implications of the intersubjective context can and often does result in ineffective, unsatisfying, and less than meaningful experiences for adult learners. It is likely, given the emotional tension and strain experienced by its members, that the trio would not have chosen to complete its project were it not for the perception that it was a "required" assignment, an attribution of meaning which appeared to drive the team's work.

To make sense of the experiences of the Trio and other constructivist approaches, it is necessary to look beyond the surface structures illuminated by more cognitively-oriented approaches. This involves enhancing our understanding of the role that deep structures (abstract and tacit processes) play in organizing and making sense of the learning experiences derived from constructivist approaches. Self psychology (Kohut, 1971; 1984) and intersubjectivity theory (Stolorow, Atwood, & Brandchaft, 1994) provide theoretical perspectives for augmenting the predominately cognitivist perspective that dominates constructivism in adult education today. These perspectives view psychological phenomena "not as product of isolated intrapsychic mechanisms, but as forming at the interface of reciprocally interacting worlds of experience" (Stolorow et al, 1994, p.x). They enlarge our understanding of the kinds of deep structures which determine and constrain the surface structures of our experiences, and the ways in which this process results from an inter-play between the intrapsychic life of the individual and the social and cultural context of the learning settings in which we find ourselves.

In contrast to the cognitivist view, the intersubjective perspective suggests that meaning-making is an intrapsychic process that is mediated through and takes place within a matrix of interacting worlds of experience. It is our position that meaning-making within constructivist approaches to learning is significantly mediated and constrained by self-other relationships. From the assumptions of constructivism, one can appreciate the centrality of the self in human change and learning. The self brings to educational experiences its personal life theories, schemata, implicit cognitive processes, and its drive for organizing and making sense of experience. Furthermore, this meaning-making

process of the self does not take place in isolation. Rather, it reflects a dynamic interdependence of the self with its social contexts.

Self-other relationships serve as "deep structures" that we tacitly use to anticipate and organize the nature and meaning of "new" social learning experiences. The meaning of our experiences are inextricably intertwined with relationships that the self forms with others in these learning settings. According to Kohut (1984), a leading proponent of this view of meaning-making, "Self-selfobject relationships form the essence of psychological life from birth to death . . . . " (p. 7). As adults we rely on schemata or unconscious organizing principles which are forged early in our lives through individual relationships with significant others. These principles are similar to the schema or "scripts" that are at the basis of several motivational systems or to personality structures which emerge from internalization of our very early relationships with caregivers (Stolorow et al, 1994). These researchers all point to the establishment of invariant principles which arise from "recurring patterns of intersubjective transaction" (p. 5) and which serve to unconsciously organize and give meaning to our experiences of constructivist learning contexts. From this perspective, the unconscious consists of affective states derived from our most early relationships with caregivers.

When we participate in social learning situations, we unconsciously use these organizing principles to structure the meaning of these experiences. For example, interactions with certain members of a learning group may be unconsciously perceived to be like relationships with certain members of our nuclear family. These principles provide conceptual frameworks in which we perceive and interpret our present relationships with fellow learners. If these principles more or less correspond to our outer reality, communication and interaction generally proceeds with few problems. When some aspect of the social context, however, does not "play along," when the principles do not fully reflect the realities of our social context, we perceive a significant challenge to the very ways in which we order and make sense of our social reality. Because our relationships are organized around unconscious principles acquired early in life, challenge often evokes considerable affect, emotional stress, and anxiety, which must then be addressed. If the individual has a strong need to avoid novelty and to maintain the status quo, she or he will respond to this situation with some method of ego defense, such as denial, withdrawal, or acting out (fight). Denial and withdrawal were clearly evident in the responses made by members of the Trio team to their learning experience. Members chose to ignore the intrapsychic tensions arising from the intersubjective context of their work, thus maintaining the integrity of their organizing principles.

IMPLICATIONS FOR RESEARCH AND PRACTICE IN CONSTRUCTIVIST LEARNING

The intersubjective perspective (Stolorow et al, 1994) focuses on dimensions of constructivist learning that have been largely minimized or ignored by more cognitively oriented viewpoints. Specifically, the self-other relationship as a tacit, deep structure within the learning context provides a framework from which we can better understand and make sense of some of the interpersonal and group dynamics which often characterize active, experiential, and constructivist forms of learning. Numerous questions, however, remain to be further explored by researchers and practitioners, many of which could be studied by practitioners as researchers. There is considerable variation regarding the ways in which self-other relationships significantly influence the learning process. In some situations, these relationships seem to dominate the deeper structures of a learning group's work while, in others, these relationships do not seem to be an issue. It would be helpful to better understand the kinds of contexts under which these relationships become problematic. We also know relatively little about the conditions under which learners are more willing to give voice to the concerns evoked by self-other relationships. Unlike the Trio, some groups will not choose to ignore these concerns but will seek to integrate these issues more fully into the work of the group. Further research may reveal kinds of self-other relationships, some of which are more amenable to modification through learning than others. It is also possible that the quality and degree of differentiation within self-other relationships is developmentally linked (Kegan, 1982), with some relationship schemata being more mature and, therefore, less emotionally volatile.

Facilitation of learning through work with deep structures will, in all likelihood, be more challenging and complex for educators. What this point of view suggests is that facilitators and teachers more fully integrate process issues with the more concrete and explicit work of their learning groups. For example, in one learning group members were examining the efficacy of a given theory of program planning, which featured the concept of power as a central aspect of consideration. Members began to actively engage the question but the discussion quickly drifted to discussion of their personal planning contexts. This discussion continued for several minutes, involving most group members in an animated and lively way. Rather than enter into the explicit or surface content of this discussion, the facilitator listened, occasionally paraphrasing what members were saying. During this time, the facilitator was listening to underlying themes which would help make sense of what seemed to be a rather disjointed but emotionally charged discussion. In an uncommon lull, the facilitator provided the group with his observations and asked the group to reflect on what it was that seemed to be at the center of their comments. The facilitator suggested that all these different personal situations being described seemed to convey an overwhelming sense of powerlessness, vis-a-vis others, within their own planning situations. Reactions from several group members suggested that this was a fairly accurate interpretation, and discussion then focused on a more reflective analysis of how this theme was playing out in self-other relationships within their own life contexts.

Helping individuals understand such situations and providing a conceptual context for re-structuring some of their ordering principles are major roles of the educator or facilitator in constructivist learning. This process involves, among other things, reflecting on and re-organizing our self-other relationships. We would submit that this vignette is an example of how facilitators can help learning groups integrate process issues more fully with the content of the group and to name and give voice to deep structures that appear to drive the meaning-making process within the group. Many of the skills currently used in nondirective teaching or student-centered situations may prove helpful in connecting learning and the learners with deeply embedded conceptions of self-other relationships, conceptions that are shaping and constraining the meaning they derive from the learning setting. To adaptively address this challenge, individuals need to be developmentally able to respond and to construct new schemata which will provide a more meaningful and realistic interpretation of their present relationships. When to encourage and when not to encourage confrontation with this challenge is a major question which needs to be addressed. Related to this are obvious ethical questions about the appropriateness of this level and kind of intervention by facilitators. Although the authors see relatively little difference between attending to issues of "self-concept" and "self-esteem" among adult learners, and how the self-in-relationship influences learning, there is considerable need to discuss these issues in open forums.

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STYLES AND EFFECTIVENESS OF MANAGING CONFLICT

Mary Marcia Donovan, Ph.D.

ABSTRACT

This study identified which of five styles of managing conflict is the predominant style of academic deans in Wisconsin colleges and universities, as perceived by the deans and a systematic sample of their subordinates. The relationship between the deans' conflict management style and their effectiveness in managing conflict was also investigated.

Fifty deans and 104 subordinates participated in the study. The questionnaire consisted of three parts: a 28-item modified version of the Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory-II; a single question which measured the dean's effectiveness in managing conflict; and 15 questions soliciting demographic information. Data was collected over a three month period in a two-step process. The SPSS-X program was used for data analysis. A correlational study between the styles of conflict management and the deans' effectiveness in managing conflict was conducted.

The integrating style of managing conflict was identified as the predominant style of the deans, with compromising being the second most predominant style. A high degree of correlation existed among the styles integrating, compromising and obliging, all of which had significant positive correlations with effectiveness. The dominating style had a significant negative correlation with the variable effectiveness. The deans in this study use a variety of styles to manage conflict and are perceived to manage conflict in a constructive manner (Donovan, 1993).

INTRODUCTION

Two friends meet at a cocktail party, argue about the cause of increased crime in the city, and their friendship falters. A husband and wife argue about whose family to spend the holidays with, and the holidays are spoiled for everyone. The Hatfield and McCoy families are at odds over real and perceived injustices toward one another, and the animosity becomes violent and extends over several generations. A 100 Years War between nations seems never to be resolved, battles becoming a way of life for fathers, sons, grandsons, and great-grandsons. The religious, economic, and social class strife in Northern Ireland flourishes, and no solution seems apparent.

Because conflict is a phenomenon that is pervasive in all of social life, we tend to accept it and often do nothing to improve how we handle it. Whether cocktail party diatribe or intra- or interfamily or international strife, unmanaged conflict can lead to tension, anxiety, fear, physiologic illness, and actual disputes ranging from arguments and fights to the taking up of arms.

Common definitions of conflict include the reference that two or more parties engage in a disagreement, controversy, or antagonistic interaction over incompatible interests, values, ideas, or goals, and exercise power in an effort to attain or maintain their position (Klar, Bar-Tal, & Kruglanski, 1988; Volkema & Bergmann, 1989; Robbins, 1974), or to a difference between the two parties in available resources, activities which one or both are engaged in, or the knowledge base of one party versus that of the other party (Deutsch, 1971, 1973; Volkema & Bergmann). This study dealt with interpersonal conflict in academic organizations. Interpersonal conflict may be between two individuals or two groups of individuals.

There is a general consensus that there are various styles for resolving conflict. Rahim (1983a, b) called these styles integrating, obliging, compromising, dominating, and avoiding. Integrating or collaborating occurs when the two parties jointly problem solve or confront the issue. Obliging or accommodating occurs when one party gives in to the other party on the issue in dispute. When both parties give up something, they have compromised. When each party will do anything to ensure that

their own viewpoint is the one that wins, they are in a dominating or competing mode. Avoidance occurs when one or both parties refuses to deal with an issue.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Although most of the literature on conflict management arrives at a consens that integration is the most desireable way to resolve conflict, recent authors suggest that more research is necessary to investigate the actual practice and effectiveness of the various st;les (Rahim, 1983a). As academic institutions take on more of the characteristics of complex and frequently highly political organizations, consensus building becomes more difficult, and the potential for conflict is greater. The position of academic dean is considered to be that of a linking pin, working with both faculty and senior administration, and as such is frequently called upon to manage conflict (Babey, 1982; Likert & Likert, 1976). The strategies used by the academic dean in the management of conflict must be flexible and appropriate for the specific conflict situation. An academic dean's effectiveness as a leader and manager will be judged, in part, on how effectively he or she is able to manage conflict in different situations and with different individuals and groups on the campus. Thus, a need to study the relationship between the use of conflict management styles by the academic dean and his or her effectiveness of managing conflict was identified.

While this study used the academic dean as the focus for investigation, the findings have relevance for anyone engaged in the practice of education, whether it be in the area of formal education, or in community or continuing education. Wherever adults function in leadership roles, they will be involved in situations that necessitate skill in managing conflictive situations. The academic leader must link together the problem, the conflict structures - -that is, the politics of the organization - - and various resources in order to deal effectively with conflict (Yates, 1985). Although the results of some of the research that has been conducted in business and psychology is applicable to education, the difference in organizational paradigms between businesses and educational institutions raises the question as to whether the same styles of conflict management would be effective in both sectors. To summarize, the purpose of this study was to determine which of the five modes of conflict management as defined by Rahim (1983c) is the predominant style of academic deans in Wisconsin colleges and universities, and to investigate the relationship between the deans' predominant conflict-managing style and their effectiveness in managing conflict.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Based on the problem statement, the research questions asked were:

1. What conflict-management styles are the most predominant of academic deans in North Central Association accredited Wisconsin colleges and universities offering the baccalaureate or higher degree?
2. What conflict-management styles do the subordinates of the deans in these Wisconsin colleges and universities perceive to be the dean's most predominant style?
3. How effective do the surveyed academic deans perceive that they are in the area of managing conflict?
4. How effective do the surveyed subordinates perceive their academic deans to be in the area of managing conflict?

The study tested the research questions by converting each to a null hypothesis statement.

METHODOLOGY

Using the Spring, 1991 edition of the NCA Quarterly (Gose & Trash, 1991), forty Wisconsin institutions offering baccalaureate or higher degrees and accredited by the North Central Association of Colleges and Schools (NCA) were identified. Names of the academic dean, or deans, of these forty institutions was obtained from Peterson's Register of Higher Education

(1992) or by contacting the institutions and requesting the information. All deans from these institutions were asked to participate in the study, with the exception of this author. Fifty (49%) agreed to participate. In order to select the subordinates for the second phase of the study, each participating dean was asked to submit a list of all individuals who reported directly to him or her. From this list, three individuals who reported to a specific dean were systematically selected to be surveyed. Because some deans did not submit a list of subordinates, or had fewer than three subordinates, the number of possible subordinate subjects was 128, of which 104 (81.2%) completed and returned the questionnaire.

The questionnaire which was sent to the participants consisted of three parts. Part one of the survey involved a 28-item questionnaire which provided a measure of the dean's most frequently used style(s) of conflict management when working with subordinates. The tool used for this section of the survey was a modified form of the Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory-II (ROCI-II) (Rahim, 1983c). Deans were asked to complete Form A. Subordinates were given Form B, with the same questions as were addressed to the dean but using appropriately modified verbiage. The second part of the questionnaire dealt with measuring the perceived effectiveness of the dean's management of conflict. Although recent research has been conducted related to the task effectiveness of groups and conflict management styles, there has been limited research related to the perceived effectiveness of an individual's ability to manage conflict (Jones & White, 1985). All subjects in this study were asked their perception of the dean's effectiveness in managing conflict by means of a global question, using a 5-point Likert-type scale. The third part of the survey instrument asked the respondents demographic questions related to themselves, their tenure in the position they held, and questions about their academic institution.

The data was collected in a two-step process, first requesting participation from the deans, and then surveying the systematic sample of subordinates of those deans who agreed to participate in the study and did return the questionnaire. All subjects were informed that the results would be treated as group data only, and measures were identified which would ensure confidentiality and anonymity. Follow-up mailings were conducted to those not responding to the initial mailing.

Responses to the questionnaire were compiled, coded, and entered into a computer to be analyzed using the SPSS-X (1986) program. Conflict management style preferences were determined for each dean and for the deans as a group, as identified by the deans and by their subordinates. Means and standard deviations were calculated for each style, and an analysis of variance was conducted to determine whether or not the means of the styles of managing conflict were significantly different from one another. Means were also calculated on the question related to the dean's effectiveness in managing conflict for all subjects as well as for the subgroups "deans" and "subordinates." A correlational study, using Person product-moment correlations, was conducted to study the relationship between the use of conflict management modes and the perceived effectiveness of managing conflict.

SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS

The typical dean in the study was male, between 50 and 59 years of age, married, holding the title of dean of an academic unit (38.5%) or dean of the faculty/dean of the college (36.5%), and in his present position between two and ten years. The majority of these individuals indicated that they had previously held the administrative position of chairperson. Thirty-eight percent of the deans indicated that they had been in higher education administration more than 15 years, and 60% more that 20 years. The majority of the deans (58.0%) had more than 15 individuals reporting to them. The vast majority of the deans (88.0%) held the doctorate as their highest degree, followed by 10.0% who held a professional degree.

The subordinates in this study present a somewhat, although not remarkably, different profile. The typical subordinate was also male, married, and between the ages of 40 and 59, with slightly more being between 50 and 59 than between 40 and 49. The majority held the title of chairperson and had

been in their present position five or fewer years. Subordinates had fewer individuals reporting to them than did the deans. The largest number of subordinates, 34.6%, indicated that they had six to ten individuals reporting to them. A majority of subordinates also indicated 20 or more years of employment in higher education. Only 58.7% of the subordinates indicated that the highest degree that they held was the doctorate; an additional 4.8% held a professional degree as their highest degree.

Based on the statistical analyses that were undertaken, all five of the null hypotheses can be rejected. Hypotheses one and two, which stated that there would be no significant difference in the use of the five styles of managing conflict, were rejected for the following reasons.

1. There was a statistically significant difference in the use of the five styles of managing conflict, as perceived by the deans in this study. In analyzing the data for the subgroup deans, it was perceived that the deans' predominant style was the integrating style, followed by the compromising, obliging, dominating, and avoiding styles, in that order.
2. There was also a significant difference in the subordinates' perception of the deans' use of the five styles of managing conflict. The findings indicate that the subordinates perceived the deans to use the styles of conflict management in the same order as did the deans: integrating, compromising, obliging, dominating, and avoiding.

Further, the study found that the style of conflict-management identified as the predominant style did correlate with the deans' effectiveness in managing conflict, as perceived by both the deans and by their subordinates. Thus hypotheses three and four were rejected. The integrating style was found to correlate significantly with effectiveness by both groups. Additionally, subordinates perceive that compromising and obliging are also effective styles and that the dominating style is an ineffective way for deans to manage conflict.

The integrating style is perceived as the predominant style by both the deans and their subordinates. The academic deans in this study also exhibited strength in the use of the compromising style. Individuals usually have a predominant style and a secondary style with which they feel most comfortable (Blake & Mouton, 1964). The data for the integrating and the compromising styles support the conclusion that deans are comfortable in using both styles when dealing with conflict. In addition, the mean for the obliging style indicated that this style is also used frequently by the deans. The dominating and avoiding styles had the lowest means for both groups of subjects; the means for these styles were not significantly different. One may conclude that these two styles are used about equally and the least often by the academic dean.

The means for both groups on the question of how effectively the deans managed conflict approached four on a scale of one to five, indicating that the deans were frequently effective in managing conflict. Using a t-test for comparison of these means, there was no reason to doubt that the means are equal. Therefore, one may conclude that the perception of the deans matches that of their subordinates on how effectively they manage conflict. The integrating style has a highly significant positive correlation to the deans' effectiveness in managing conflict, as perceived by both groups of subjects. This was the only style that had a significant correlation in the deans subgroup. However, the subordinates also correlated effectiveness of managing conflict with compromising and obliging. One may conclude, then, that a dean could be perceived as effectively managing conflict when using a variety of styles. Although both groups found the dominating and avoiding styles to correlate negatively with effectiveness, only the subordinate group's correlation for dominating was at a significant level. Subordinates do not look favorably upon a superior using a dominating style.

The strong correlation between integrating and compromise that was demonstrated by this study is not surprising and not only reflects situational leadership theory but also the concepts present in negotiation theory. Negotiation is a combination of collaboration and compromise (Gray, 1989). Although collaboration is viewed as the ideal style to use to manage conflict, compromise was found to be the style used most frequently in studies by Newell (1979), Garnier (1981) and Woodtli (1987).

Because the degree of correspondence between the integrating and compromising styles is both positive and of a fairly high magnitude, it is evident that the deans in this study are comfortable using both styles and most likely use them interchangeably.

APPLICATION OF THE FINDINGS TO PRACTICE

The style of managing conflict that is perceived most effective by both the deans and their subordinates who participated in this study is the integrating style. Therefore, it seems to follow that individuals in leadership positions in education would be wise to learn and use the integrating style whenever possible when involved with conflicts. Through the use of collaboration and integrative problem solving, educators have the means to prevent conflicts from erupting, as well as serving as role-models by using effective methods to manage conflicts. Collaboration begins with mutually defining a problem, setting goals that both parties can accept, and then, together, identifying ways to solve the problem. The art of collaboration is not one that is universally understood and practiced. This is especially true in the United States, where individuality is prized and competition is practiced in schools, sports, business, and almost every aspect of daily life.

Compromising and obliging were also shown to correlate positively with effectiveness in managing conflict. Therefore, individuals can and should have at their disposal a number of methods for effectively handling conflict, and conflictive situations should be evaluated to determine which style would be most effective. The implication is that, similar to leadership theory, different situations call for different ways of managing conflict.

Since the dominating style of managing conflict correlates negatively with effectiveness, educators should use this style sparingly. There are situations when a decision must be made immediately or when a persons in authority must make a decision based on their special knowledge, skill, or experience, making the use of the dominating style appropriate. However, since it is perceived as ineffective, particularly by subordinates, an individual should be cautioned to engage in dominating behavior on a very limited basis. This is also true of the avoiding style of managing conflict, which correlated negatively with effectiveness. There may be times when an individual would choose to walk away from a situation, but this style should be used infrequently, as it is generally not considered an effective problem-solving method.

It is particularly important for those who work in team situations to learn how to deal with differences. This will become even more important as the emphasis on total quality management, with its focus on teams and teamwork, becomes more of a force in education. The time to begin to teach collaboration and integrative problem solving is not in adulthood, although it is never too late to learn, but in the earliest years of one's life. Therefore, education and training for new parents, early childhood educators, and all those who work with children in educational or recreational activities should include the concepts and techniques of conflict management and negotiation.

The findings of this study correspond with the results of other studies reviewed in the literature. It is important for those engaged in all types of education to provide opportunities to learn and to teach effective ways to manage conflict. Time that is spent on ineffective tactics such as not listening to one another, insisting that our way or idea is the only good one, or avoiding an issue could be applied to solving the many problems that our educational institutions, and our world, face today. In addition, educators could share their knowledge and expertise with business and community groups by becoming role models for the effective management of conflict. To squander energy, time, and money on conflictive behavior is unconscionable.

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THE DEVELOPMENT OF LEARNED ETHICAL BEHAVIOR AMONG PROFESSIONAL NURSES

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this completed qualitative study was to describe how registered nurses learn to be ethical practitioners. The propositions generated were: (1) Nurses develop professional ethical behaviors through a process that involves the synthesis of influences from personal and professional experiences, feelings of powerlessness, and observation of and interaction with role models and (2) through the nurse patient relationship, the nurse is able to actualize ethical behaviors on behalf of a compromised patient. These propositions have implications for adult and nursing educators and their expectations of adult students in professional programs.

INTRODUCTION

Changes in the allocation of resources, as well as the aging of our population, necessitate the practice of ethically sound nursing care. As technology advances for health care, so does it for education and other fields. With scarce resources for education, decisions on training, types of program, as well as quality, are being made by adult educators who teach individuals whose jobs interface within the health care industry. Adult educators, like nurses, directly touch the lives of a large audience, while indirectly influencing many others. The methods adult educators use to bring their learning messages to students as well as the content need to be guided by a clear ethical position.

The interest for this study came after observation of nurses facing ethical situations in their daily practice and from questions unanswered by moral development theories or current research literature on nursing ethics.

Research Questions

The research questions asked 1) how Registered Nurses (RNs) learn to deal with ethical situations encountered in professional practice and 2) what are the influences on RNs development of behaviors to deal with ethically compromising situations in the work place.

METHODOLOGY

The grounded theory design was the approach utilized in this study. The technique of constant comparison was applied to the data as it was collected and as themes were generated so that analysis of the data would generate theory (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). In order to achieve the goal of this study, theoretical sampling of individuals who believed themselves to be ethical practitioners was conducted. Eleven currently licensed RNs, with a minimum of two years work experience as a staff nurse in an acute care hospital, and one graduating nursing student (10 females and 2 males) were volunteer participants in one-half to one-hour audio taped interviews.

FINDINGS

The major themes that emerged from this study were experience, powerlessness, role models, at-risk patients, and nursing roles. The first three themes, derived from influences in the RNs' personal and professional lives, served as the foundation for the development of ethical behaviors. The last two themes, at-risk patients and nursing roles, represent the components of the nurse patient relationship through which the nurses demonstrated professional ethical behaviors.

INFLUENCES OF ETHICAL BEHAVIOR

Family, friends, teachers, the environment, and spiritual experiences collectively influenced the nurse's ethical development. The essence of these influences served as the foundation for professionally ethical nursing practice throughout the careers of the research participants.

Experience

The nurses emphasized the influence of the family in their discussion of major happenings and events in their lives. The influence was direct as seen when parents had high standards for their child's achievement, or indirect when the individual observed parental values for work, independence, and death with dignity.

Some of their life experiences influenced the nurses' current practice or served as the basis for reflection on the meaning of that practice. These experiences were related to the environment, such as college or work, or to the affiliating community. Professional nursing experiences with dying patients of all ages and their grieving families, noncompliant patients, drug abusers, and seemingly senseless deaths of newborns and vibrant young adults had a dramatic influence on the nurses' ethical development.

Powerlessness

The nurses recalled past situations in which they experienced an inability to act, lack of knowledge regarding how to act or what to do, an inadequate support for their views or direction for action, or a lack of control over the events that occurred. Thereafter, when confronted with ethical situations, the nurses recalled the past situations in which they felt powerless. They then filtered the new situation through the past and developed a strategy for action.

Role Models

In this study, role models or the research participants were individuals who demonstrated behaviors which were deemed perfect by the observing nurse. It was only after feeling powerless that nurses sought a role model in an attempt to resolve the inner feelings of inadequacy. The role model may have been new or one from the past. Ultimately, the nurse strove to correct the situation using behaviors that have proven successful in past experiences. The literature did not specifically address the concept of role models of ethical behavior for nurses.

At-risk Patients

In this study the at-risk patient was the individual who had a defenselessness aggravated by illness. At-risk patients are those who cannot speak for themselves because they may be too old, too young, or too ill to assert their wishes. They may have a socially unacceptable habit or disease, speak a different language, or be a different race that, to some, minimizes their right to expect the same

standard of care other sick individuals receive. At-risk patients may not even know that they are at risk for something negative to happen. The at-risk patient was not specifically addressed in the literature.

Nursing Roles

Nurses have taken all their experiences, feelings of powerlessness and the responses, and selected characteristics of their role models and shaped them into who they are. It is that synthesis of experience, feelings of powerlessness and role modeling that leads the nurse to develop a personal code of ethics. It is that personal ethical code or consciousness that is applied in professional circumstances as the nurse develops relationships with at-risk patients. The nurses's role with patients in the development of professional ethical behavior was not addressed in the literature.

PROPOSITIONS

The following propositions were generated: (1) Nurses develop professional ethical behaviors through a process that involves the synthesis of influences from: a) personal, family, nursing practice, environmental, and spiritual experiences, b) feelings of powerlessness that arise with personal illness and family deaths, interactions with physicians, and unrealistic expectations for patient outcomes or one's professional performance, and c) the observation of and interaction with family and friends, teachers, and nurses who served as role models. (2) Through the nurse patient relationship, the RN is able to actualize ethical behaviors on behalf of a compromised (at-risk) patient.

IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The findings from this study have implications for the study of ethics by nurses, the need for ethical role modeling by nurses and adult educators, and the development of methods to insure quality programs. Ethics courses should build on the personal experience of the student. Moral judgement and decision making in the clinical setting should be the major emphasis of these courses. Adult educators and nurse educators have a responsibility to role model ethical behaviors for their students. It is the acceptance of individual autonomy and personal differences, confidentiality, professional preparedness which includes maintaining or updating current level of knowledge and skill and avoiding the teaching of unfamiliar subjects (Caffarella 1988). In addition, educators from both domains must ethically evaluate programs for the benefits generated to the students and the community, especially in these times of scare resources for funding of ongoing programs.

Recommendations for future research include conducting similar studies of nurses working in specialty areas, adult educators working in high risk client areas, and study of the nurse-patient relationship.

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TEACHING FROM THE PULPIT: AN EXPLORATORY STUDY OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ADULT LEARNING THEORY AND PREACHING LITERATURE

Timothy J. Ellis

Abstract. Five emerging themes in preaching literature illustrate a growing affinity between clergy and adult learning theory. This paper argues that these emerging trends provide an "open door" for adult education researchers to begin to explore a whole new world of adult education practice, with potential benefits for both clergy and adult education professionals.

INTRODUCTION

Preaching, as outlined in popular preaching texts, has characteristics which may seem to many adult educators antithetical to how adults learn. Preaching literature gives minimal attention to adult learning theory. Seldom do popular preaching texts mention the word teaching or broach the subject of learning or change (Haidle, 1983). Given this apparent wide disparity between the fields of preaching and adult education, some researchers may question the utility of exploring the relationship between preaching and adult learning theory. Would not such an endeavor be an exercise in futility? Despite these predilections, this paper will argue that "winds of change" in preaching theory and research over the past decade suggest evidence of exciting new possibilities for adult education researchers. The paper first develops a rationale for increased interaction between adult education researchers and the field of preaching. Second, five trends in preaching theory and research are reviewed which illustrate a growing affinity between preaching literature and adult learning theory. Finally, implications from the discussion are drawn for research and practice in the field of adult education.

RATIONALE

At least three factors may spark interest among enterprising researchers to begin to explore the field of preaching as an area of adult education practice. First, clergy do work with adults, and their sermons are generally geared to largely adult audiences. Whether clergy realize it or not, they do engage in adult education through their sermons. For researchers interested to explore adult education in the context of practice, clergy (unsuspecting though they be), provide a potential wealth of new perspectives and ideas of the practice of adult education.

Second, researchers must also keep in mind that published literature in a field may not always accurately reflect what occurs in practice. This fact has been highlighted in recent debates over the gap between research, theory and practice in professional education (Schon, 1983, 1987; Nowlen, 1988). These theory-practice concerns have lead some researchers to begin to ask the neglected question: "what do practitioners actually do in practice?" (e.g. Cervero & Wilson, 1994). Might the growing interest to conduct research to understand the "world of practice" be profitably extended to the "world of preaching"? Certainly some clergy, either consciously, or unconsciously, have incorporated effective teaching methods in their sermon preparation and delivery. Yet this area of adult education practice remains largely untouched by adult education researchers.

Finally, despite the apparent disparity between adult learning theory and preaching literature, there are encouraging signs of a growing interest among clergy in adult learning theory and research. Increasing numbers of clergy have completed doctorates in adult and continuing or community education (Merriam & Cunningham, 1990). Several have since become prominent leaders in the field of adult education, while others have utilized continued learning to enrich their professional practice as ministers, priests, or directors of continuing ministerial education. Recent conventions for clergy also evince a growing interest in adults as learners. (Recent examples include the conference theme

of the 1992 convention of the Society for the Advancement of Continuing Education for Ministry (SACEM): "Transformational Learning;" and the 1992 convention of the Religious Education Association which invited Sharon and Larrent Daloz-Parks as keynote speakers and adopted the conference theme: "Adult Learners: Making Critical Connections).

TRENDS IN PREACHING THEORY AND RESEARCH

Evidences of growing interest and affinity between clergy and the field of adult education lead to the intriguing question: "Has this growing affinity translated into a growing openness among the preaching establishment to principles and perspectives espoused by adult learning theory and research?" While it is not the purpose of this paper to ascertain whether there is a direct cause-effect relationship between adult learning theory and new ideas in preaching literature, a review of current preaching literature reveals emerging themes which suggest that there is a growing affinity between preaching theory and research and principles and perspectives of how adults learn. These themes include: (1) A growing identification of preaching as a teaching-learning activity, (2) A shift from preacher and content-centered preaching to concern to understand and accommodate the parishioner-learner, (3) A transition away from exclusively lecture to a plurality of preaching/teaching styles and methods, (4) A new understanding of professional authority built upon relational authenticity rather than content-expertise and institutional title, and (5) preaching for empowerment.

GROWING IDENTIFICATION OF PREACHING WITH TEACHING

Until recently, preaching texts have provided minimal discussion of the relationship between preaching and teaching. Homiletitions who did mention teaching generally did so in the context of stressing the difference of preaching from teaching and the superiority of preaching to teaching (Dodd, 1944; Miller, 1983) However, during the past decade preaching theory and research have begun to erode this barrier between preaching and teaching (Easterly, 1984; Mcbride & Marlowe, 1981; Murray, 1983; Williamson & Allen, 1991). Easterly (1984), for example, conducted a study in which he combined preaching, teaching and dialogue to effect positive changes in the marriage and family life of his members. While Easterly distinguishes between preaching and teaching, he concludes that both preaching and teaching contribute importantly to the teaching-learning process.

Murray (1983) also maintains a distinction between teaching and preaching, but goes a step further than Easterly to argue that every sermon contains both teaching and preaching. Haidle (1985) erases the barrier completely holding that preaching is teaching. Perhaps the most incisive analysis of the relationship between preaching and teaching reviewed is Stephenson Bond's (1992) book Interactive Preaching. Bond develops two alternative preaching paradigms: (1) traditional preaching which he compares to Paulo Freire's "banking concept of teaching," and (2) interactive preaching, which he associates with Freire's concept of liberating education through dialogue.

Research on the effectiveness of preaching also has eroded the barrier between preaching and teaching by examining the effectiveness of sermons to produce behavioral change (Ambrose, 1985; Borger, 1985; Edwards, 1987; Howden, 1989; Michel, 1989; Nelson, K., 1986; Nelson, W., 1985; Newman & Wright, 1980; Price & Terry, 1980; Troeger, 1990; Wilson, 1983). Preaching effectiveness research focuses attention upon both the teaching-learning potential of preaching, and also satisfaction levels of parishioners with preaching as currently practiced. Research studies have found increased levels of dissatisfaction with traditional preaching among males, the more highly educated, and younger members.

SHIFT TO PARISHIONER-CENTERED PREACHING

"Parishioner-centered" preaching--preaching that seeks to identify and address felt needs of a congregation--is another emerging concept in preaching literature (Kerr, 1983; Richmond, 1983). Kerr (1983), for example, utilizes qualitative research methods to explore the potential of including

a study group of laity to help identify needs of the congregation and make sermons more relevant. He concludes that involving members to identify congregational felt needs improved sermon relevance and increased his level of understanding of his parishioners. Kerr reviews a variety of methods for assessing needs of parishioners.

INTEREST IN A VARIETY OF PREACHING/TEACHING STYLES

Preaching literature also exhibits a growing openness to a variety of style in preaching delivery (Aldredge, 1980; Bond, 1991; Haidle, 1983; Maguire, 1980; Swank, 1981; Williamson & Allen, 1991). Haidle (1983) explores how clergy may broaden the variety of preaching/teaching styles utilized in sermons. After reviewing historical and Biblical roots for including varied preaching/teaching methods in sermon delivery, Haidle tests the receptiveness of his conservative congregation to 13 different teaching/learning methods and techniques. Responses to various methods were mixed--very positive feedback regarding some methods, and negative feedback regarding others. Haidle concludes that ministers can, and should, work to include a variety of methods in sermons, but that sensitivity needs to be used when employing some methods. Methods should be introduced gradually and with appropriate explanations in advance.

TRANSITION FROM CONTENT-EXPERT TO RELATIONAL AUTHENTICITY

Preaching literature also articulates a need to revise current perspectives of the basis of ministerial authority (Bond, 1991; Richmond, 1983; Troeger, 1990). Richmond (1983) notes, "there was a time when the role of the pastor was clearly defined and carried an authority all its own. With the development of other professions that have taken over tasks that were once the province of the clergy, some pastors find themselves adrift in a sea of uncertainty" (p. 46). He continues that ministers are left uncertain about "what is uniquely 'our' province, and what is 'theirs'" (p. 47). Richmond notes that an increasingly pluralistic, and highly-educated membership has also made the task of preaching more difficult. He suggests that these changes in society call for a new understanding of the role of the preacher, one in which the "division between the pulpit and pew" is erased and ministers approach congregations as an equals, fellow-learners.

Van der Geest (1987), and Troeger (1990) suggest that clergy should base their professional authority as preachers upon "relational authenticity" rather than "content-expertise." Van der Geest (1987) views this shift as moving away from being "authoritarian" toward being "authoritative"--merely standing by one's own word and work. Hans van der Geest argues that the "relation established between the preacher and the congregation is more important than the content" (p. 183).

PREACHING FOR EMPOWERMENT

Preaching for empowerment is another innovative theme in preaching theory. Bond (1992) examines preaching as found among oppressed peoples throughout history--Quakers, Moravians, Seventh-Day Adventists, Jehovah's Witnesses, Pentecostals, Holiness churches, Black Baptists, and African Methodist Episcopal churches, and concludes that preaching in these cultures is much more interactive and liberating than preaching in dominant cultures. Bond finds preaching in oppressed or minority cultures to more closely resemble Paulo Freire's description of "liberating education"--an education based upon dialogue and equality in the teacher-student relationship, than traditional preaching. Bond points out that histories of preaching, which are generally written by "educated, influential men in seminaries and the church," tend to reflect the type of sermons found in these cultural contexts, but say little or nothing about preaching in cultures of the uneducated and powerless.

Bond further notes striking parallels between Freire's "banking concept" of teaching and the dominant preaching paradigm, which he labels "the banking concept of homiletics":

(1) The preacher preaches and the listeners are preached at.
(2) The preacher knows everything and the listeners know nothing.
(3) The preacher thinks and the listeners are thought about.
(4) The preacher disciplines and the listeners are disciplined.
(5) The preacher chooses and enforces his choices, and the listeners comply.
(6) The preacher acts and the listeners have the illusion of acting through the action of the preacher.
(7) The preacher chooses the sermon content, and the listeners (who are not consulted) adapt to it. (Bond, 1992, p. 59).

As an alternative to the traditional "banking concept" of homiletics, Bond proposes an "interactive" model of preaching similar in many respects to Freire's empowerment model of teaching. Bond's interactive preaching model envisions the preacher stepping down from the pulpit, giving up his or her "expert" stance and control over the content of the sermon, and assuming the role of a learner with the congregation in the sermon event (p. 14).

CONCLUSION

This review of preaching literature identifies several innovative trends in preaching theory and research which imply mutually beneficial research endeavors for both clergy and adult educators. Adult participants in religious education programming are one of the largest adult education constituencies in the United States. Approximately half the United States population attends weekly worship services. These services provide educational programming not just in areas of religious life and thought but also regarding other important areas of adult life including parenting skills, relationship building, and how to gain self-worth and build personal self-esteem. Tapping into this educational constituency, could benefit the field of adult education through providing researchers and practitioners with fresh perspectives on how adults learn, a broader constituency base, and new arenas in which to conduct research. Religious educators (ministers, priests, Sunday School teachers, etc.) may benefit as well through gaining broader understandings of how adults learn, and new ideas of how to teach adults effectively.

Several intriguing research questions might be pursued by researchers in this new arena of adult education practice. For example: What might be learned from preaching among the disadvantaged and oppressed regarding how adults learn in these contexts? Do adult learners in religious education contexts exhibit characteristics that are not prominent in other learning environments? Do clergy have unique reservoirs of perspectives and expertise that could enrich current understandings of how adults learn? Only as researchers are willing to "adventure" into this new world of adult education practice will we discover answers to these intriguing questions.

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CODES OF ETHICS AND THE REFLECTIVE PRACTITIONER: AN INTERDISCIPLINARY CODE OF ETHICS FOR ADULT EDUCATION REVISITED

Timothy J. Ellis & James H. McElhinney

Abstract. Current literature on the functions and educative utility of codes of ethics in the field of adult and continuing education exhibits a simplistic dichotomization of existing alternatives. This paper proposes extending existing perspectives toward the development of a dynamic, interactive, multi-faceted program of professional ethics instruction of which codes of ethics comprise only one small though important component.

INTRODUCTION

Over the past several years, strong opinions have been expressed by a number of prominent leaders in the field of adult and continuing education both for and against the adoption of a code of ethics for the field. While these perspectives and opinions have contributed importantly to the development of a perspective of ethics for adult education professionals, this paper argues the need to extend discussion toward finding a more comprehensive and integrative alternative. Toward this objective, the paper reviews three schools of thought of the educative utility of codes of ethics found in literature across the professions. Second, a model is proposed which attempts to integrate these viewpoints into a multidimensional model of professional ethics. Finally, the paper explores implications of the model for understanding different dimensions of professional ethics instruction.

VIEWPOINTS OF CODES OF ETHICS

A review of literature on ethics in the professions reveals three dominant perspectives of the educative utility of codes of ethics (See Table 1 below). These viewpoints have been arbitrarily labeled the dogmatic, developmental, and dialectic viewpoints of codes of ethics. Major components and proponents of each of the viewpoints are briefly summarized below.

DOGMATIC

Most current opinions and perspectives of the potential roles and educative utility of codes of ethics in adult education literature fall within what might be termed the dogmatic viewpoint of codes of ethics. This viewpoint either strongly supports a code with little acknowledgment of potentially destructive roles of codes in the history of professional practice, or strongly denounce codes with minimal attention to potentially valuable contributions of codes. Examples of persons expressing dogmatic viewpoints within the field of adult education include Carlson (1988), Connelly & Light (1991), Cunningham (1992), and Sork & Wetlock (1992). Landis (1927) and Illich (1970; 1975; 1977) are examples of dogmatic viewpoints outside the field of adult education.

DEVELOPMENTAL

Developmental viewpoints do not take a strong "yes" or "no" stance toward codes of ethics. Rather these perspectives argue that at less mature stages of cognitive and moral development persons need codes of ethics, while at more advanced stages of development codes become less relevant. Cognitive and moral development theorists Kohlberg (1976), Perry (1970; 1981) and Fowler (1981) are representatives of this school of thought.

DIALECTIC

The dialectic viewpoint is less well developed in professional literature. This viewpoint suggests that ethical reasoning involves the balancing of a number of different decision-making "bases" within a single interactive framework. Codes consist of one base among several which professionals consult to make ethical decisions. Hints of a leaning toward this viewpoint may be found in the writings of Dewey (1929), Bernstein (1983), Schon (1983, p. 33), Chazan (1985), Daloz (1986), and Okin (1989). These authors in various ways attempt to integrate objective and subjective approaches to ethics within one system of thought. Several authors also attempt to integrate rational cognitive-developmental constructs of Kohlberg and Perry with more affectively focused models of Gilligan (1981) and Belenky et al (1986) to formulate approaches for professional ethics instruction (Spiegelman, 1988; Kasworm, 1988; Decker, 1989; Furman, 1990; Nash, 1991). Fowler's (1981) description of a "paradoxical" faith also illustrates an attempt to hold alternative perspectives in dialectic tension.

THE DIMENSIONS OF PROFESSIONAL ETHICS MODEL

MODEL ASSUMPTIONS

The dimensions of professional ethics model presented in this paper (Table 2) has the following objectives:

1. To integrate various perspectives of professional ethics into one comprehensive framework.
2. To identify how these dimensions of ethics interact in ethical decision-making and action.
3. To link ethics content of each of the several dimensions of professional ethics with complementary teaching approaches for teaching professional ethics.

MODEL COMPONENTS

The dimensions of professional ethics model uses the categorical constructs of left brain dominance verses right brain dominance, and higher Bloom verses lower Bloom to separates ethics content into four related and overlapping dimensions. Right brain dominance refers to the broad areas of the affect. Left brain dominance refers to rational, conceptual, and analytical components of thought and action related to ethics. Higher Bloom verses Lower Bloom distinguishes between higher order thinking skills of analysis, synthesis and valuation, and lower order thinking skills of knowledge acquisition, understanding and application. These concepts combined form a four dimensional framework of ethics content: rules, principles, attitudes, and actions (See Table 2).

APPLICATION: DIMENSIONS OF PROFESSIONAL ETHICS INSTRUCTION

By combining perspectives of professional ethics into one broad framework, different perspectives about how to teach ethics to professionals no longer appear contradictory and incompatible, but rather comprise complementarily elements of a one multi-faceted instructional program. Combined, the four dimensions of professional ethics content reveal four teaching areas of ethics instruction: artistry, situated principles, wisdom, and mature world view. The goal of each of these teaching areas is to assist learners to gain skill at differentiating and integrating in practice concepts and principles related to two of the dimensions of professional ethics content.

SITUATED PRINCIPLES

Cognitive-developmental constructs of Kohlberg, Perry, and Fowler focus upon ethical concerns related to the situated principles area of professional ethics instruction. These

TABLE I
VIEWPOINTS OF CODES OF ETHICS

FIGURE 1. DOGMATIC VIEWPOINTS

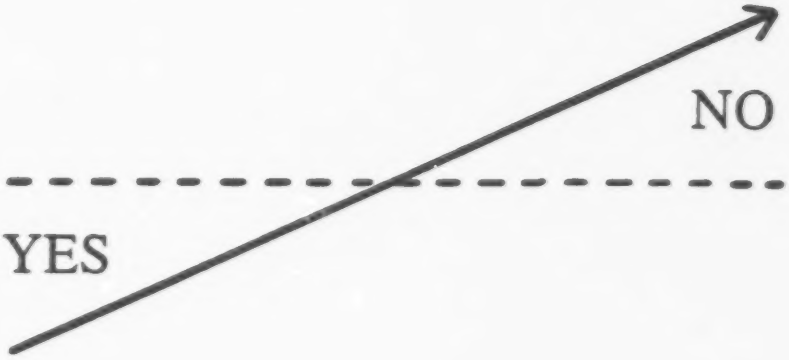
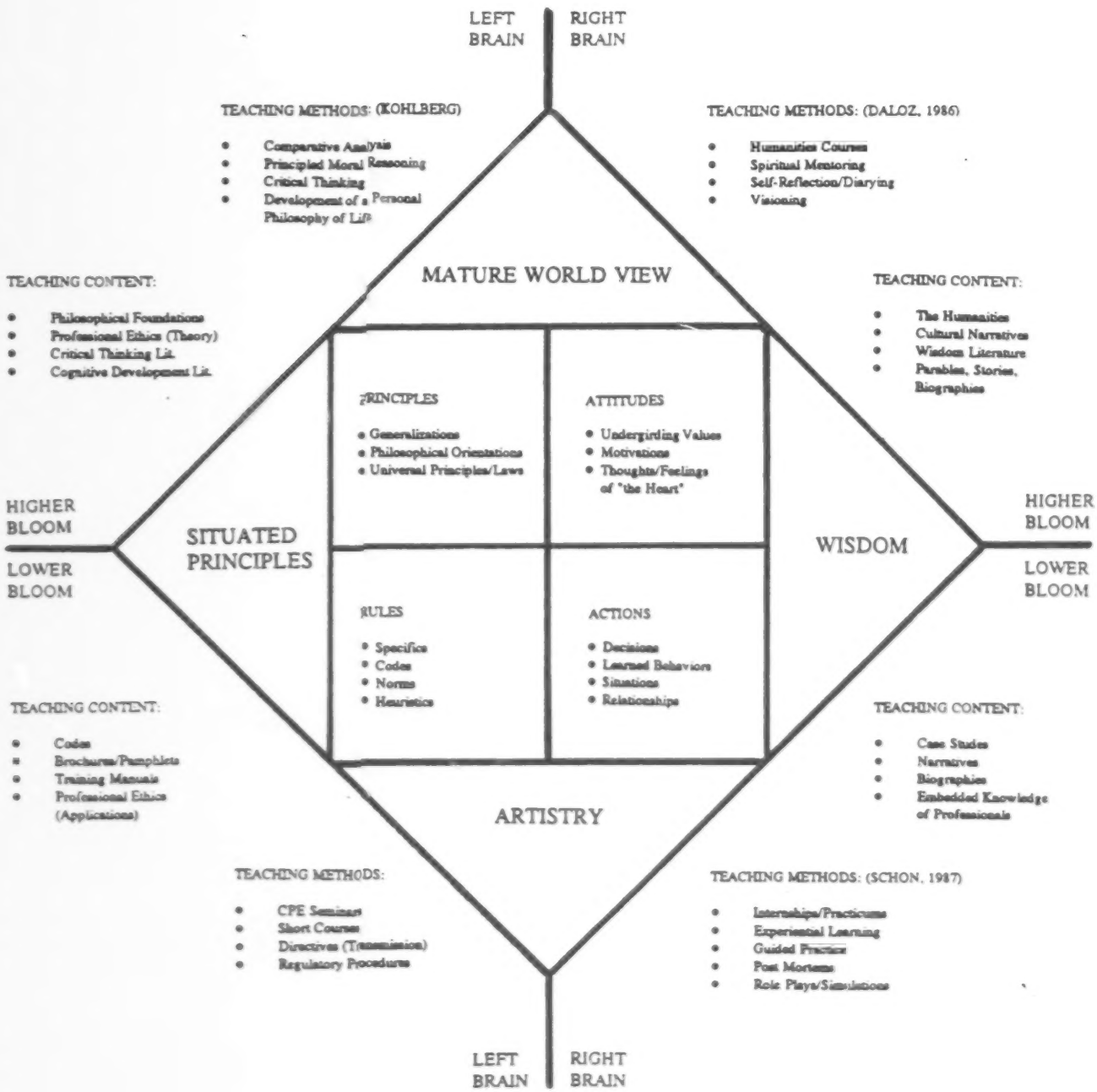


FIGURE 2. DEVELOPMENTAL VIEWPOINTS

FIGURE 3. DIALECTIC VIEWPOINTS

TABLE II
DIMENSIONS OF PROFESSIONAL ETHICS MODEL



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theories in different ways articulate how persons relate to and integrate general moral principles with specific rules, norms, and heuristics. Numerous articles in professional journals have based curricula and methods for teaching professional ethics on these cognitive-developmental theories (e.g. Willing & Dunn, 1981; Richards, 1982; Harris & Brown, 1990; Ward, 1992; Schrader, 1993).

WISDOM

The wisdom area of professional ethics instruction focuses on helping learners to integrate attitudes and values in the real world of complex relational challenges and messy situational ambiguities. Examples of exponents of this approach include Noddings (1984; 1988), Cooper (1989), Walton (1989), Disparti (1991), and Rogers and Webb (1991).

MATURE WORLD VIEW AND ARTISTRY

Teaching approaches to assist learners to integrate principles and attitudes (mature world view), and rules and actions (artistry) are less well developed. Schon (1983; 1987) notes the need to translate his suggested "artistry" concerns for professional education to the moral realm. However, he does not elaborate upon this concern in depth. Several authors, writing for a developmental perspective propose teaching approaches that integrate Gilligan's focus upon the affect with Kohlberg's rational emphasis (Spiegelman, 1988; Decker, 1989). Perhaps Daloz (1986) provides the best example to date of a teaching approach to assist learners to develop a mature world view.

CONCLUSION

Admittedly, this model of professional ethics content and instructional approaches is still at an embryonic stage of development. However, it is hoped that this model will stimulate writers on ethics in the field of adult and continuing education to expand current discussion of codes to examine how codes may be used profitably as one component of a much more comprehensive and multi-faceted program for assisting professionals to improve their sophistication at identifying and resolving ethical dilemmas in practice.

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IMPROVING THE QUALITY OF CONTINUING HIGHER EDUCATORS' LEADERSHIP ROLE IN ECONOMIC AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PLANNING

Trenton R. Ferro

ABSTRACT

This presentation reports the findings and conclusions of a study which was conducted with nine institutions involved in a process designed to involve higher education in economic and community development. The findings themselves are broken down into five areas: 1) the various ways in which participants have responded to the AASCU process;
2) problem areas for continuing educators which were identified during the study, including community perceptions, faculty reward system, role of continuing education units, and higher education's responsibility to its community; 3) recommendations for continuing educators;
4) further observations and questions; and 5) recommendations for further research.

INTRODUCTION

In 1991 the American Association of State Colleges and Universities' (AASCU) Center for Economic and Community Development issued a call to its members to participate in a Model Process designed to involve higher education in economic and community development. This Model Process involved eight steps:

1) Performing an Institutional Self-Assessment;
2) Designing the process;
3) Organizing the process;
4) Defining economic and community development;
5) Analyzing the environment;
6) Developing goals, strategies, and initiatives;
7) Implementing programs; and
8) Evaluating the results.

This research project was undertaken 1) to describe the economic and community development practices of these eight colleges and universities, as well as those of a university-based regional development consortium, and, 2) on the basis of these descriptions, to draw implications for continuing educators.[1] The eight institutions selected to participate in this process were:

Bloomsburg University of Pennsylvania,
Chadron State College in western Nebraska,
Kean College of New Jersey,
Murray State University in western Kentucky,
Northwestern State University of Louisiana,
Shawnee State University in Southern Ohio,
State University of New York College at Brockport, and
Western Carolina University in North Carolina.

METHODOLOGY

Phone interviews were conducted with key representatives of these eight institutions.[2] On-site interviews were conducted as well with the directors of the Mon Valley Tri-State Network and the Mon Valley Tri-State Leadership Academy, a regional consortium serving western Pennsylvania, northern West Virginia, and western Maryland whose mission and activities parallel those of the AASCU Model

Process. On the basis of these interviews, descriptive reports of each institution's progress in the AASCU process were developed. Then the interviews and reports were analyzed to discover common themes, accomplishments, problems, and concerns which are presented in the next five sections.

RESPONSES TO THE AASCU PROCESS

All eight colleges and universities completed the first two steps of the AASCU process: 1) each performed an institutional self-assessment, and 2) each designed a planning process. This process brought together key institutional or internal leaders and community or external decision makers. This leadership group worked with a consulting team, sent by AASCU, which included Lynn Witten, who directed AASCU's Center for Economic and Community Development, and one other trained consultant. Following the consultation visit, the leadership group received a report from the consulting team which outlined the consulting team's findings and which included recommendations for further action. The reactions of college and university participants, which are summarized here, varied from very positive to mixed.

The consulting process itself brought together the key decision makers for a round of interactive panel and group process sessions to share perceptions, list current activities, identify resources, and establish goals for new and additional collaborative activity between the educational institution and the community. This part of the process received consistently high marks. Respondent after respondent gave high praise to Lynn Witten for her professionalism, her expertise, and her handling of the process.

The same cannot be said for the report, the contents of which were seen by most (but not all) respondents as restating what was already known to those who would be responsible for shepherding the process through the remaining six steps. The institutions had collected and submitted a considerable amount of material which they had hoped the consultants would study and analyze. The participants perceived the reports to concentrate less on explicating insights and possibilities for new directions than they did on encouraging the schools to continue with AASCU process.

None of these eight schools have continued the process. Several reasons can be cited for its cessation. The most common reason given was finances. The cost of completing the process was consistently seen as a deterrent. Although the cost estimate given by AASCU was not necessarily exorbitant, several of the institutions involved have been faced with decreased budget revenues from their respective states. Even where involvement in the economic and community development of the service region has been given high priority and visible support, there has been difficulty in defending expenditure on a design process such as that proposed by AASCU.

Second, the demise of AASCU's Center for Economic and Community Development was also cited as at least a secondary reason for lack of continuation. Although no one said so straight out, there appeared to be a certain undercurrent of sentiment along these lines: If AASCU is not committed to the process--if AASCU sees this as a place to cut--why should the various institutions continue the process on their own? Several questions can be raised: Why did AASCU close the Center and drop out of the process? Would continued AASCU support have improved the financial commitment of and to the various institutions? Would the institutions have continued the process if AASCU had continued its support? Would AASCU's continuing the process have produced different results than those which have currently been attained?

Third, for some, the answer to the last three questions would be, "No." Local goals had been met by participating in the first two steps of the process. Several of the schools would not have continued even with on-going support from AASCU. In most cases, these are the same schools which felt that the report of the consulting team provided no new information or insights. They valued the consulting process; they were then ready to continue on their own. Such responses should not lead to the conclusion, however, that these eight schools have ceased their involvement in the economic and

community development activities in their service region. All eight are quite involved--some extensively so. In fact, one could surmise that strong interest, and even actual involvement, in local and regional developmental activities prompted these institutions to respond to the AASCU RFP in the first place. Certainly these institutions are involved in a great many developmental projects, and the AASCU process has led some institutions to find new and different forms of involvement in their service regions.

The institutions involved valued the consultation process because it brought community, business, and government leaders together with leaders in the educational institutions; contacts have been made, networks developed, and two-way communication established. The process helped get the colleges and universities directed outward; they are contributing to the overall quality of life in their regions and making their campuses more accessible.

FINDINGS: PROBLEM AREAS FOR CONTINUING EDUCATORS

COMMUNITY PERCEPTIONS

Involvement in the AASCU process produced a key insight: leaders of the schools came to understand that their colleges and universities are well-kept secrets in their service areas. The buildings are visible, but community leaders don't see much there to which they can relate. Beside the economic benefits of providing employment, especially staff and service positions, and purchasing goods and services--a contribution to the community which the schools could do a better job of emphasizing--institutions need to examine every program and activity within the school to determine the external as well as internal potential of such programs and activities. Each school contains a tremendous storehouse of potential expertise, service, and training for the organizations, businesses, and industry of the service region.

Even when community leaders have attempted to access university resources, they have been frustrated. They do not know whom to contact on campus, and those on campus receiving calls from the community are often unable or unwilling to help. Internal efforts are necessary to train those most likely to receive incoming queries. First, this training must ensure that recipients of incoming calls know where to direct each call for the best chance of obtaining a positive and helpful response. Second, all faculty and staff must learn how to handle such calls. Third, service to the community needs to be given such a high priority that all administrators, faculty, and staff will automatically respond in a courteous manner. Another easy step--one already taken by some of the institutions involved in this study--is to make the college's buildings and services more readily available and accessible to community and business groups.

FACULTY REWARD SYSTEM

Several other problematic areas have been highlighted by respondents during this study. One is the faculty reward system. Economic and community development activities are not recognized sufficiently as legitimate activities in most promotion and tenure procedures. Emphasis is placed primarily on research activities within an academic discipline. Although service to university and community is listed as contributing to advancement, common wisdom says that this really isn't so. "Publish or perish," still very strong on most campuses, discourages rather than encourages faculty participation in local developmental activities. Conscious and extensive efforts must be made to alter the reward system if campus leaders, truly committed to making a difference in their service regions, want to tap the ready pool of expertise which is already at their fingertips.

THE ROLE OF CONTINUING EDUCATION UNITS

Another difficulty is the role of the continuing education unit plays in local and regional community and economic development. This unit has been, historically, the point of contact with the outside world. Consequently, it oftentimes has become the focal point for any developmental efforts in which the

college or university might become involved. Yet, because the continuing education unit is usually viewed as marginal--that is, it is seen primarily as a source of income for the school, and its activities are not viewed as an integral part of the mission of the college or university--its involvement in local and regional development efforts is also seen as marginal and not central to the mission of the institution. Rather than viewing involvement in local development and quality of life issues as central to the mission and purpose of the institution, such involvement is seen as something done over in continuing education which has little bearing or affect on what happens in the academic mainstream.

HIGHER EDUCATION'S RESPONSIBILITY

A fourth area of concern has been highlighted by David Harrison, executive director of the Mon Valley Tri-State Network. He points out that state institutions, historically, have seen themselves as the recipients of state funds without any reciprocal responsibility for either generating new funds or increasing the revenue of the state in some way. There is a growing realization that higher education must play a role in the survival of the state by giving something back to the state--something more direct than "merely" the development of tomorrow's productive citizens. In order to maintain and receive a decent level of funding, higher education will have to contribute to the state coffers in some way. While there is some sense of this responsibility in land grant institutions, development of such awareness among state-supported schools still requires considerable attention.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR CONTINUING EDUCATORS

The following recommendations for colleges and universities who want to become involved in the community and economic development of their service regions can be drawn from the interviews with respondents to this study:

1. Make involvement in community and economic development--or the larger context, quality of life issues--an integral part of the school's mission and purpose. The strategic plan should include programs, activities, and endeavors with an outward as well as an inward focus.

2. Support external involvement organizationally by charging a high-level administrator with this function and make that person directly responsible for the development of such programs, activities, and endeavors.

3. Support such involvement financially. This calls for up-front commitment. Involvement in community and economic development should not be viewed primarily in terms of the economic benefits to the school (for example, by placing primary responsibility for such involvement in the continuing education unit and then expecting continuing education to produce a profit for the university through its participation in such external activities). Rather, in keeping with the mission, vision, and strategic plan, involvement should be seen in terms of what the school can do for the community. Ultimately, the financial return will be there, but the early financial commitment must be seen as a necessary investment with the payoff being the positive regard for the school by the community.

4. Encourage, recognize, and reward faculty, department, and program involvement in local and regional community and economic development activities. Regard such participation on the part of faculty as legitimate professional activity by rewarding it in the advancement process and by providing appropriate staffing and financial support to departments and programs willing to become involved with their service region.

The key question becomes: What is the strength of the institution's commitment? Is it "in the bones," or is it only of interest if it produces income for the college or university? The attitude and commitment of the school will be quickly assessed by local community, business, and governmental

leaders, and they will respond accordingly.

FURTHER OBSERVATIONS AND QUESTIONS

A final set of observations drawn from this study relates to the participating schools. Why did these institutions, but not others, become involved in the process? Are there common characteristics among the participating schools? The most obvious commonality is that all but one institution serve primarily rural areas or include rural areas in their service region. The one exception is a school in an urban area with very low economic indicators. Thus all areas served would seem to share certain traits: low levels of business and industry development and growth, low levels of income, lack of employment opportunities, and the like. Besides economic factors, why mostly rural areas? Does population make a difference in the self-perception or self-awareness of the institution's potential role in, and contribution to, its region? Do schools in urban areas not see themselves as leaders in economic development, or do they see or think that such activity is already being done adequately? In other words, do schools in rural America see themselves as more visible in their regions than do schools in urban and suburban areas?

None of the schools participating in the AASCU process are large (when compared to the "name" schools), and none are land-grant institutions. Beyond that, the search for common factors begins to falter. Geographically, all eight are east of the Rockies; all but two are east of the Mississippi--and a seventh is in a state through which that river runs. Four are located in states which made up the original 13 colonies, and four are located in the historically industrial north and northeast regions of the country (three schools are common to both of these designations). Does history and the age of the region play a role in determining why these eight and not others? Are schools in the West and Southwest already involved because there has been a difference in the dynamics of past and present development of these regions? Or is it just a matter of numbers--there are many more colleges and universities east of the Rockies? Such questions, obviously, are difficult, if not impossible to answer. It's much easier to discover reasons for participation than reasons for non-participation.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

However, there are some potential areas for further investigation. Little research has been conducted into the quality of continuing higher educators' leadership role in economic and community development planning. Investigations along the following lines would alleviate that deficit. One major direction for research would be to conduct surveys at the state, the regional, and the national level to catalog the current involvement of higher education institutions in the economic and community development of their service areas. Questions the research is designed to answer would include:

1. Who is involved by type of institution? Is it a 2-year, 4-year, and/or graduate institution? Is it a public, private, religious, land grant, or other type of school?

2. What are institutions so involved actually doing? What are the types and descriptions of projects and activities in which they are involved?

3. How are they conducting these projects and activities? What models have they used for developing them?

A second major direction for research would be to investigate the role of economic development within the framework and structure of the institution. The research could be designed to answer three different sets of questions:

1. Do, and how do, such activities fit within and relate to the mission statement and purposes of the school? What is the relationship to the academic and research functions of the institution? What is the organizational placement? That is, who in the administrative hierarchy is responsible? Another way of asking the question is:

How marginal or how central to the school's operation is involvement in economic development? How, and how much, are all levels (administrators, faculty, and staff) of the institution involved?

2. What attitudes about the institution's involvement in local economic and community development are held by a) local community, business, and governmental leaders and b) college and university personnel--administrators, faculty, and staff? In the case of school personnel, each group--administrators, faculty, and staff--would be studied as a separate group because there attitudes and perceptions could vary considerably.

3. From whence does leadership for collaboration need to come--from the college or university or from the community? What models and strategies work best? Is collaboration, often espoused philosophically with little research support, always the best approach?

NOTES

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LINKING RESEARCH AND PRACTICE: CHARACTERISTICS OF ADULT EDUCATION RESEARCH REPORTED AT THE MIDWEST RESEARCH-TO-PRACTICE CONFERENCE ON ADULT, CONTINUING & COMMUNITY EDUCATION, 1982-1993

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ABSTRACT

Conference proceedings offer the opportunity for content analyses of major themes or trends over the years. The general goals of this ongoing study were to understand the relationship of research and practice as presented at the Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference and to determine how the conference papers have made the link between the two. The content analysis of conference proceedings for 1982-1993 revealed that research papers presented were highly descriptive and noncumulative and there was a need for more research with a multicultural and participatory focus. It was concluded that paper presentations should have a stronger emphasis on the research-to-practice relationship developed through collaborative and participatory models of research.

INTRODUCTION

Adult education research has made a significant contribution "to the growth and complexity of knowledge about the practice of adult education" (Jarvis, 1991, p.5). As in the other social science fields, adult education has broadened its perspectives and "passed through an evolutionary pattern in the development of its research procedures". This growth has also presented opportunities to explore the relationship between research and practice. The link between research and practice has been a concern of adult educators participating in the Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference during the last twelve years.

However, "the direction that the relationship of theory and practice should take (theory to practice, practice to theory, practice in theory) is not universally agreed upon" (Jarvis, 1991, p.9). These different viewpoints have evolved over the last sixty years of formal study of adult education. The theory-practice relationships involve several major disputes concerning "differing perspectives and values regarding (1) philosophies of science, (2) purposes of research, (3) control and ownership of the research enterprise, (4) strategies appropriate for mapping the field, and (5) research directions that are potentially promising" (Deshler & Hagan, 1989, p.147).

Cervero (1991) does not view these disputes as problems to be solved. Rather, "the relationship between theory and practice should be seen as a highly contested issue over which people who subscribe to competing ideologies and epistemologies struggle" (p.33). The struggle is over the meanings of the terms theory and practice and their relationship. This process grew out of a movement toward professionalization and institutionalization. "This orientation defined both the appropriate problems to study and the best strategy for developing knowledge to address those problems" (p.24).

Conference Proceedings "provide perhaps the most current source of state-of-the-art literature in the field" (Brockett, 1991, p.124). Like past issues of journals, papers published in the Proceedings of conferences offer the opportunity for content analyses of the major themes or trends over the years. Such content analyses have been undertaken by Dickinson and Rusnell, 1971; Long and Agyekum, 1974; Long, 1983; Rogers and Brockett, 1988; and Fisher and Martin, 1987 (Brockett, 1991).

The general goals of this ongoing study were to understand the relationship of research and practice

as presented at the Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference and to determine how the conference papers have made the link between the two. Four objectives were designed to identify and analyze: 1. the characteristics, topics, and designs of the research reported at the Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference; 2. the significant characteristics of the contributors, such as institutional affiliation, graduate student status, and professional characteristics; 3. the trends in the relationship of theory and practice in the research; 4. the ways in which the Midwest Research to Practice Conference can strengthen its ability to fulfill its mission to improve practice in Adult Education.

PROCEDURES

Using data obtained from the Proceedings for the years 1982-1993, categories were created for the following: year, author(s), title, classification of presenter (professor, graduate student, practitioner), type of presentation (individual or joint), content category, research design, multicultural theme and university. The information was entered into a data base utilizing FileMaker Pro. The data were sorted by year, category and sub-categories.

We used the nine content categories developed by Long and Agyekum (1974), adding an tenth for historical research. Research design categories were developed using a model created by Lather (1991) for classifying research in the postpositivist paradigm and the traditional categories for the positivist paradigm as reported by Best (1977) and Ary, Jacobs and Razavieh (1990). Postpositivist research was characterized as interpretive (purpose to understand), critical action (purpose was to emancipate), deconstruction (purpose was to take apart the structure of meaning). Positivist research was described as descriptive, quasi-experimental and experimental. In addition we created separate categories for antecedent (historical and literature reviews), conceptual (philosophical and theoretical) and process (methodology, techniques of practice and evaluation studies) research.

Papers were further analyzed in terms of patterns of contributions, the organization and format of the Proceedings and according to the advice given in the field in regard to issues and future directions (Deshler & Hagan, 1989; Long, 1991).

FINDINGS

Three hundred and fifteen professors, graduate students and practitioners were identified who contributed papers to the Proceedings during the first twelve year period of the Conference. A total of 340 papers were presented and published in the Proceedings during the years 1982-1993. Table 1 indicates that two hundred and forty-five (72%) of these papers were individual presentations, while ninety-five (28%) were joint presentations with two or more authors. An average of 28 papers were presented each year; with an annual average of 20 individual and 8 joint paper presentations. The overall number of papers remained relatively constant over the last twelve years with a low of 24 papers in 1990 and 1991 and a high of 43 papers in 1993. The lowest number of joint presentations (3) was in 1988; and the highest (18) in 1993. The number of joint presentations increased during the last three years of the period as did the percentage of joint presentations in the overall total for the years 1991-1993.

Table 1 - Total Number of Presentations by Type and Year: 1982-1993

Year	82	83	84	85	86	87	88	89	90	91	92	93	Total
Individual	18	22	22	23	19	20	23	23	19	14	17	25	245
Joint	7	5	6	4	10	6	3	8	5	10	13	18	95
Total	25	27	28	27	29	26	26	31	24	24	30	43	340

Multiple presentations by a single contributor were counted as separate contributions. Of the total number of presentations (340) listed on Table 2, individual presentations were made by 133 (39%) professors, 42 (12%) graduate students, 51 (15%) practitioners and 19 (6%) unknowns with the

remaining 28% being joint presentations. The total number of joint presentations was 95 with 90 identifiable collaborations and five unknown. Classification of twenty-four (7%) of the contributors were unknown due to incomplete biographical information provided in the Proceedings. The participation by professors was consistent over the twelve year period. Professors collaborated on 79 (23%) presentations: 31 (39%) with other professors; 32 (41%) with graduate students; 15 (19%) with practitioners and 1 (1%) with graduate student and practitioner. Graduate students collaborated on 37 (11%) presentations: 2 (5%) with other graduate students; 32 (87%) with professors; and 3 (8%) with practitioners. Total graduate student participation rose most notably in 1993 after increasing steadily over the last twelve years. The participation by practitioners was consistent over the twelve year period. Practitioners collaborated on 25 (7%) presentations: 6 (24%) with other practitioners; 15 (60%) with professors; and 3 (12%) with graduate students.

The classification of contributors was problematic in that it was difficult to determine if a contributor with a doctorate was to be considered a professor or practitioner, especially if identifying oneself from a university center. Those holding a Ph.D. from a university, from extension, a research department or related field were counted as professors, but may not be from adult education programs. It was not known which graduate students identified themselves as practitioners rather than students of adult education.

Table 2 - Total Number of Presentations by Classification of Contributors: 1982-1993

Year	Professor	Graduate Student	Practitioner	Professors presenting with Professors	Professors presenting with Graduate Students	Professors presenting with Practitioners	Professors presenting Graduate Students and Practitioners	Practitioners presenting with Practitioners	Graduate Students presenting with Practitioners	Graduate Students presenting with Graduate Students	Unknown
82	9	1	7	2	1	0	0	0	3	0	2
83	12	3	1	1	1	2	0	0	0	0	7
84	16	1	1	0	6	0	0	0	0	0	4
85	12	5	6	0	2	0	0	1	0	1	0
86	9	5	5	5	0	0	0	4	0	1	0
87	9	2	9	3	1	2	0	0	0	0	0
88	13	7	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	2
89	14	2	4	5	3	1	0	0	0	0	2
90	10	5	1	2	1	2	0	0	0	0	3
91	9	0	6	3	5	1	0	0	0	0	0
92	9	2	5	4	1	4	1	0	0	0	4
93	11	9	5	5	10	2	0	1	0	0	0
Total	133	42	51	31	32	15	1	6	3	2	24

The content of the Conference's 340 papers were grouped according to ten categories in Table 3. Adult learning accounted for 109 (32%) of the papers; program planning, 70 (21%); instructional materials, 53 (16%); program areas, 33 (10%); Adult Education as a field of practice, 30 (9%); and personnel and staff, 24 (7%). The remaining content areas accounted for 21 (6%) of the presentations: institutional support, philosophy, international perspective, and historical. There was a steady decline in paper presentations on Adult Education as a field of practice, from five papers in 1982 to one in 1992-1993.

Table 3 - Classification of Content: 1982-1993

Year	Adult Learning	Program Planning	Institutional Support	Adult Education	Instructional Material	Philosophy	Program Area	Personnel /Staff	Int'l Perspective	Historical
1982	7	5	1	5	2	0	1	4	0	0
1983	11	5	1	4	5	0	1	0	0	0
1984	15	2	2	4	3	0	0	1	0	1
1985	5	4	0	3	9	1	3	2	0	0
1986	10	9	0	2	3	1	1	3	0	0
1987	8	4	0	1	5	0	2	5	0	1
1988	6	6	0	1	7	2	3	0	1	0
1989	7	2	0	3	7	2	9	1	0	0
1990	11	3	0	4	2	0	3	1	0	0
1991	8	5	1	2	0	0	6	1	0	1
1992	7	10	0	0	8	1	2	1	0	1
1993	14	15	0	1	2	4	2	5	0	0
Total	109	70	5	30	53	11	33	24	1	4

The research design of the majority of the papers was descriptive, with 124 (37%) of the 340 papers placed in this category. Fifty (15%) of the research designs were determined to be interpretive, 38 (11%) quasi-experimental and 35 (10%) theoretical. The remaining 93 papers from the other 9 categories accounted for just 27% of the research designs.

Table 4 - Research Design: 1982-1993

	Positivist			Postpositivist			Antecedent		Conceptual		Process		
	Descriptive	Experimental	Quasi-Experimental	Interpretive	Critical Action	Deconstruction	Historical	Literature Review	Philosophical	Theoretical	Methodology	Techniques of Practice	Evaluation Studies
82	13	2	5	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	1
83	11	0	6	0	0	0	0	5	0	4	1	0	0
84	10	2	2	3	0	0	0	5	0	1	4	0	1
85	4	0	0	5	1	0	0	1	3	8	2	2	1
86	18	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	6	1	0	1
87	10	0	1	4	0	0	1	1	1	6	1	0	1
88	10	0	3	5	0	0	1	0	4	0	1	0	3
89	14	0	1	7	0	0	1	0	6	1	0	0	1
90	9	0	1	5	0	0	3	1	1	1	0	0	3
91	7	0	4	3	1	0	1	1	0	2	0	4	1
92	6	0	10	3	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	2	3
93	12	0	4	14	1	0	0	2	2	4	2	1	1
Total	124	4	38	50	4	0	8	18	20	35	13	9	17

Multicultural issues were identified in only fifty (15%) of the 340 papers presented over the last twelve years. Table 5 shows 15 (30%) papers related to age, 3 (6%) class, 1 (2%) disabled, 6 (12%) ethnicity, 21 (42%) gender, and 4 (8%) race. There were no papers that related to sexual orientation.

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Table 5 - Multicultural Categories: 1982-1993

Year	Age	Class	Disabled	Ethnicity	Gender	Race	Sexual Orientation
1982	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
1983	2	0	0	0	1	0	0
1984	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1985	2	1	0	2	3	1	0
1986	1	0	0	0	5	0	0
1987	2	0	0	0	5	0	0
1988	0	1	0	0	1	0	0
1989	3	0	0	1	2	0	0
1990	2	0	0	0	1	0	0
1991	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1992	0	1	1	1	1	2	0
1993	3	0	0	1	2	1	0
Total	15	3	1	6	21	4	0

Of three hundred fifteen total authors contributing to paper presentations over the last twelve years, two hundred forty-eight authors made one contribution to individual or joint papers; sixty-one authors made two to five contributions. Six authors made contributions toward fifty-nine papers, 19% of the total authorship over the last twelve years. Table 6 shows the distribution of contributions for all individual and joint authorships. Table 7 presents the number of years these same six authors have contributed papers from 1982-1993.

Table 6 - Number of Contributions for All Authorships

Number of Papers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
Number of Contributions (Individual and Joint)	248	38	18	4	2	0	1	2	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1

Table 7 - Number of Years of Contributions by Top Five Authors

Author	82	83	84	85	86	87	88	89	90	91	92	93	Total
J. Dirkx		X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	10
J. C. Fisher			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	9
J. A. Henschke						X	X	X	X		X	X	6
L. G. Martin			X		X	X	X		X	X		X	6
T. R. Ferro				X	X				X	X	X		5
J. H. McElhinney			X	X		X					X	X	5

DISCUSSION

The research presented over the last twelve years remains highly descriptive and noncumulative for the field of Adult Education, and lacking a theoretical base. This is problematic for the field in general, and consistent with other reviews of journal manuscripts and conference Proceedings found by Long (1991). The Proceedings focused mostly on the technology of Adult Education: program planning, instructional materials, and program areas. Although Cervero (1991) anticipated that the field would be likely to see alternative viewpoints achieve greater prominence and Merriam (1991) saw the body of knowledge becoming more pluralistic, this has not been the case with the Midwest Conference. If theory is viewed as the foundation for practice, then the challenge is to think about practice from a variety of theoretical positions. This has important consequences for Adult Education. "We should set our sights on understanding and being critical of the circumstances that shape our actions about the issue" (Cervero, 1991, p. 36)

The findings of the content analysis reflect the treatment of adults as objects of research, and their exclusion from the research-to-practice process as active participants. The research designs are less participatory than one would expect from a Conference that has as its mission to improve practice in Adult Education. Positivistic research has been prominent throughout the twelve years and the research has mostly been conducted by individuals. The majority of joint presentations have been made by professors and/or graduate students of Adult Education. A relatively low number of professors have made most of the contributions, often multiple presentations. There have been no practitioners with significant repeat presentations.

The Proceedings do not reflect concern or sensitivity to multicultural issues. The race and gender of the presenters do not reflect a multicultural group of researchers or practitioners, themselves. Even during the last three to five years, the paper presentations do not reflect a concern for multiculturalism. In fact, there has been a decline in gender issues in the past years. Recent research agendas proposed by Ross-Gordon (1991) and the concern for race, class and gender issues by Hayes and Colin (1994) hopefully will have an influence on future conference presentations. Perhaps revised criteria specifying multicultural issues and collaborative efforts in the Call for Papers for the Conference would have an influence, as well.

The location of the Conferences has had an impact on the university-based contributors. Five of the seven universities making the most contributions have hosted the conference in the last twelve years at least once. It is not known what impact the locations have had on the state and region. Stronger marketing of the Conference to practitioners, especially in the host state and immediate region, would have an impact. It is still undetermined how the Conference fulfills its mission of improving the practice of Adult Education in this regard.

CONCLUSION

The Conference has experienced growth over the years. The practice and research of the participants have been enriched by their experiences. This study contributes to the improvement of the Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference and to the future direction of research in the field of Adult Education. The Steering Committee has an obligation to continue to identify how to strengthen the mission to improve practice. The content analysis and discussion of the findings suggest several areas for further consideration. The steering committee should look for ways to elicit conference papers that explicate a clearer relationship between research and practice. A stronger emphasis on this relationship in papers and presentations, as well as time to discuss the application of theory to practice, would help bridge the gap. The practice of including contact information of the presenters in the Proceedings should be continued for follow-up by practitioners/researchers and researchers/practitioners.

References will be made available upon request.

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GENDER AND HOME-BASED WORK: RESEARCH TO SUPPORT EXTENSION PROGRAMMING

Marilyn Furry and Rama Radhakrishna

ABSTRACT

Five hundred twenty-two men and 377 women home-based workers (HBWs) from nine states (Hawaii, Iowa, Michigan, Missouri, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Utah and Vermont) were interviewed by telephone to collect data relative to demographic, work and occupational profiles. In this study, a home-based worker was defined as a person at least 18 years of age who worked in or from home to earn income for a minimum of 312 hours over the past 12 months. The descriptive demographic, work and occupational profiles of men and women HBWs indicated both similarities and differences. Both men and women HBWs were similar in age, education level, marital status, home ownership, and business ownership. However, they differed on variables such as experience in HBW, employment status, income and occupation type. Men HBWs had more work experience, worked full-time and earned more income than women HBWs. Men HBWs are most likely to work in mechanical and transportation, and contracting types of occupations while women HBWs are more likely to work in services, arts and crafts types. However, a higher percentage of both men and women HBWs were employed in marketing and sales. Findings of this study have several implications for extension educators to target their programming efforts toward home-based work.

INTRODUCTION

Home-based work or paid work performed in or from home has a renewed interest. During the 1980s several economic and technological changes have created a more favorable climate for home-based work: 1) change in the composition of the labor force--increasing number of women with young children entering the labor force; 2) change in the nature of office work--decline in costs of computer and telecommunication equipment making way for white collar workers to work at home; 3) removal of prohibitions on commercial home-based work; and 4) globalization of economic markets (Masuo, Walker & Furry, 1992). In addition, cooperative extension has recognized home-based work as a priority program, and is a part of four national initiatives of the Cooperative Research Service and USDA-ES.

Historically and currently, home-based work is a major means by which women around the world contribute to the support of their families (Allen & Wolkowitz, 1987). An advantage of home-based work is the flexibility it can provide women in meeting the demands of work and family. Furthermore, home-based work is also regarded as a community development tool, a means of increasing the household income of financially distressed farm families while keeping them in rural communities (Norum & Weagely, 1985).

During the past decade several researchers have examined the status of home-based work and home-based workers in the United States. Horvath (1986) found more men working in home-based work. However, he found that women had stronger commitment to the work place working an average 11.1 hours per week while men averaged only 9.3 hours. National work-at-home surveys conducted by LINK resources found more young families and women working at home. In this survey, most HBWs were female, college educated and averaged 19.8 hours of work per week. Of the nearly 14,000 women surveyed in 1985, 53% of them worked at home (Christensen, 1988). She also found most women were self-employed and were located in clerical work (typing, bookkeeping, data entry); craftswork (sewing, knitting, and embroidery); and professional occupations (accounting, planning and writing).

A number of other researchers have examined gender issues in the workplace. According to a traditional perspective, gender differences are a common occurrence and are explained on the basis that, prior to their entry to the work, both men and women have different socialization, education,

attitudes and other experiences that ultimately shape their work experiences (England & McCreary, 1987).

In a study of gender and small businesses, Loscocco, Robinson, Hall and Allen (1991) found that majority of both men and women had secondary and post-secondary education. Both men and women tend to come from managerial and professional ranks. Women were slightly younger than their male counterparts. Forty-three percent of the women and 40% of men in this study had no dependent children. Women averaged lower sales volume and income from small businesses than their male counterparts. In regard to experience, the average male had been in business for a longer period of time than his female counterpart. Business services and manufacturing were the key industries where both men and women were located. However, women were concentrated heavily in business services.

According to Humphreys and McClung (1981) and U.S. Department of Commerce (1978), women lack the managerial and technical skills that are important to small business success. In addition, it has been argued that women have less access to financial capital. Further, Committee on Small Business (1984) reported that although banks are traditionally reluctant to lend to small business owners, that reluctance is heightened when a woman is at the helm.

In the above paragraphs, we have briefly discussed the status of home-based work and the workers. We also reviewed research relative to small businesses and home-based work in the context of gender. How men and women HBWs differ in terms of demographic, work and occupational characteristics? Few answers are available in literature. Thus, this study examined demographic and work characteristics and occupations of HBWs in the context of gender.

PURPOSE AND OBJECTIVES

The primary thrust of this paper is to describe selected characteristics of men and women HBWs. Specific objectives of the study were to:

1. determine demographic and work characteristics of men and women HBWs.
2. determine differences, if any, between men and women HBWs and demographic and work characteristics.
3. identify types of occupations pursued by men and women HBWs.
4. determine differences, if any, between men and women HBWs and type of occupations pursued by them.

METHODOLOGY

The sample for this study consisted of 899 randomly selected home-based worker households in the nine states of: Hawaii, Iowa, Michigan, Missouri, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Utah and Vermont. This sample was selected from a list of nine state's household telephone numbers that were obtained from Survey Sampling Inc. of Fairfield, Connecticut. The Iowa State University Statistical Laboratory made screening calls in February, 1989 to identify households containing at least one home-based worker. The criteria for selecting HBWs was a person at least 18 years of age who worked in or from home to earn income for a minimum of 312 hours over the past 12 months. Telephone interviews were conducted with the HBWs in 899 households earlier identified as containing at least one home-based worker. In the sample of 899 households, there were 522 males (58%) and 377 females (42%).

A structured survey instrument was developed to collect data for the study. The instrument was designed to obtain information on three characteristics: HBWs, the employment situation of the HBWs, and the households in which they lived. The instrument was pretested, revised and administered to

the sample. Data were collected in March and April of 1989 by telephone interviews. Data were analyzed using descriptive statistics and were weighted to correct variances in the raw data from the population of HBWs in the nine states. Chi-square analysis and t-tests were used to determine differences between male and female HBWs relative to selected demographic and work characteristics and occupations pursued by them.

RESULTS

OBJECTIVES 1 & 2

The democratic and work characteristics of home-based workers are shown in Table 1. Male and female HBWs were imilar in age, education level and marital status. The mean age for male HBWs was 42.10 years while female HBWs were slightly older with a mean age of 43.09 years. The mean education level for male HBWs was 13.79 years, and for female workers 13.89 years. HBWs are more likely to be married regardless of being male or female.

No significant differences were found between male and female HBWs relative to years lived in the same community. Female HBWs lived little longer in the same community (20.22 years) than male HBWs (19.56 years). Significant differences were found between male and female HBWs in regard to experience in home-based work. Male HBWs had more experience in home-based work (10.25 years) than female HBWs (7.58 years).

HBWs are more likely to locate their business in towns and cities with a population of 2500 or more regardless of being male or female. Seventy-four percent of male and 72% of female HBWs located their business in towns or cities with a population of 2500 or more. Similarly, HBWs owned their homes and worked regardless of being male or female. Eighty-nine percent of male and 85% of female HBWs owned their homes. Seventy-five percent of male and 74% of female HBWs were owners of their home-based businesses. Both male and female HBWs work year around. Eighty-five percent of male and 88% of female HBWs worked all year. Significant differences were found between male and female HBWs relative to employment status and household income. Male HBWs were more likely to be employed full-time (77%) than females (49%) (X^2=131.21; $p < .05$). Female HBWs earned less income from home-based work ($8,165) than male HBWs ($24,649) (t-value=4.09; $p < .001$).

OBJECTIVES 3 & 4

The various types of occupations pursued by HBWs are presented in Table 2. As can be seen from Table 2, HBWs pursued a variety of occupations. Prominent among the occupations pursued by HBWs were: marketing and sales (24%), followed by contracting (15%), mechanical and transportation (13%), professional and technical, arts and crafts, and services (12% each), clerical and administration (6%), managerial and agricultural products and sales (3% each). Further examination of the occupation variable indicated that HBWs pursued both traditional and contemporary occupations such as tax preparation, engine rebuilding, wood working, mail order business, computer programming, financial consultant, data processing and market research.

Significant differences (X^2=350.155; $p <.001$; Cramer's V=.62) were found between occupations pursued by HBWs and their gender. A higher percentage of female HBWs were employed in services, arts and crafts and clerical type of occupations while higher percentage of male HBWs were employed in contracting, mechanical and transportation, and professional and technical types of occupations. However, a higher percentage of both male and female HBWs were employed in marketing and sales. Findings also suggest that very few male HBWs were employed in services. Similarly very few female HBWs were employed in contracting and mechanical and transportation types of occupations.

Table 1. Selected Demographic and Work Characteristics of Male & Female HBWs.

Characteristic	Male (n=522) (Percent/Means)[a]	Female (n=377) (Percent/Means)[a]	X^2
Business Location			
Rural	25.6	28.2	
Urban	74.4	71.8	
Home Ownership			
Own Home	88.9	85.0	
Not Own Home	11.1	15.0	2.937
Business Ownership			
Business Owners	74.9	74.1	
Wage Workers	25.1	25.9	0.070
Employment Status			
Full-time	77.1	49.1	
Part-time	22.9	50.9	131.21
Seasonality			
Seasonal	14.6	12.1	
Not Seasonal	85.4	87.9	1.09
Age	42.10 years	43.09 years	
Years in Community	19.56 years	20.23 years	
Years in School	13.79 years	13.89 years	
Years in Home-based Work	10.25 years	7.58 years	
Income from HBW	$24,649.00	$8,165	4.09

[a] weighted percentages and means

Table 2. Occupations Pursued by Male and Female HBWs (n=899).

Occupation	All HBWs (899) (Percent)	Male (n=522) (Percent)[a]	Female (n=377) (Percent)[a]
Marketing and Sales	24.27	13.51	10.76
Contracting	14.85	14.34	0.52
Mechanical and Transportation	13.17	12.36	0.81
Services	12.11	0.07	12.04
Professional and Technical	11.94	8.96	2.97
Arts and Crafts	11.65	4.18	7.46
Clerical and Administrative	5.85	1.47	4.38
Managerial	3.46	1.89	1.57
Agriculture Products and Sales	2.69	1.26	1.44

[a]weighted percentages X^2 350.155; df=8; $p < .001$; Cramer's V=0.624

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The descriptive demographic and work profiles of male and female HBWs indicate both similarities and differences. Male and female HBWs are similar in age, education level, marital status, place of residence, home ownership, business ownership, length of time living in the same community, and nature of work (seasonal/non-seasonal). However, significant differences were found between male and female HBWs relative to experience in home-based work, employment status and occupations pursued by them. Male HBWs had more work experience and work full-time than their female counterparts. Male HBWs were more likely to be located in occupations such as mechanical and transportation, contracting, while female HBWs were most likely to work in services, marketing and sales, arts and crafts and clerical types of occupations. Perhaps two factors could account for this difference. First, traditionally, male workers are employed in occupations that require physical or manual effort, and females in arts and crafts types of occupation. Secondly, both male and female HBWs are employed in marketing and sales which requires minimal investment to start the home-based business. Male HBWs had more experience in HBW, and earned more income from HBW than their female counterparts.

This study provided baseline data on home-based work and the home-based workers. Findings suggest vast potential for educational programming in home-based work. Extension educators, small business development agencies, rural development centers should use the findings of this study to identify potential clientele and design educational programs that help clientele to run and manage home-based businesses. Effective extension educators can target their programming efforts toward home-based work as another option for earning income when family structure or employment change.

Home-based work is a part of four national initiatives of cooperative extension. Therefore, extension family educators should use findings of this research to identify programming needs in home-based work and help clientele to make informed decisions about home-based work. Findings of this study are of immense importance to extension educators to understand the unique characteristics of HBWs and to identify programming needs in home-based work. In addition, the findings will position extension educators in a unique situation to help clientele to identify opportunities and limitations of HBW and make informed decisions about HBW. Further, the findings should help identify and support extension's role in the interface between home-based work and family life.

Staying in the same community for a longer time may suggest that home-based businesses relies on community resources while communities need independent HBWs for economic development and stability. It will be useful for practitioners to identify community resources needed to support home-based work. Small business administration believes that home-based businesses stimulate economic growth because home-based businesses have the ability to recover quickly in times of recession.

Extension educators as they work with young and older people to understand the changes in the rural and farm communities should help them recognize the impact of at-home-income generation to community stability.

Further research is needed to identify factors that influence women HBWs to enter home-based work. Additionally, the internal locus of control (determining work outcomes), and risk taking ability of women HBWs needs to be examined. To what extent men and women HBWs are satisfied with home-based work needs to be examined by future researchers.

A longitudinal study on home-based work should be conducted every 5 or 10 years to expand the database on home-based work and assess its growth. Findings from longitudinal studies will help local policy makers to make informed decisions about home-based work and its future.

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ON THE OUTSIDE LOOKING IN: WOMEN DOCTORAL STUDENTS AND MENTORING RELATIONSHIPS

Patricia L. Garofolo and Catherine A. Hansman-Ferguson

ABSTRACT

This paper reports the results of a survey of 56 female doctoral students in adult education at a midwestern university. The focus of the survey was to explore perceived barriers of women doctoral students to initiating mentoring relationships with faculty members and forming supportive critical friendships with other doctoral students. This study is significant to the field of adult education because it illuminates possible impediments to women as developing leaders in the field of adult education.

INTRODUCTION

Mentoring involves "an intense caring relationship in which persons with more experience work with less experienced persons to promote both professional and personal development" (Caffarella, 1992, p. 38). In recent years, the literature in adult education has reflected an interest in mentoring women as well as studying the leadership roles of women in adult education. Stalker (1993) suggests that through mentoring other women, women as mentors can extend influences beyond academic environments and become critical players in larger social issues. Caffarella (1992) discusses the importance of women forming critical relationships with other women and men who are in, or are aspiring to, leadership roles for the purposes of exchanging information, providing mutual support, and helping careers progress. In order to successfully become mentors to other women, female doctoral students need to have these mentoring relationships modeled. In graduate adult education programs, these mentoring relationships should be formed between faculty members and students. However, sometimes women doctoral students in adult education may perceive barriers to establishing mentoring relationships with faculty members, particularly when no female faculty members are available to serve as mentors to female students. As women doctoral students in adult education, it is our belief that this lack of successful mentoring experiences may impact the successes of women in adult education doctoral programs, and thus, may also affect women's future leadership roles in adult education.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

A consistent finding of studies of mentoring is that mentoring relationships enhance career development and future career success (Bahniuk, Dobos, Hill, 1990). Merriam (1983) notes mentoring cultivates relationships, and women's ways of leading encourages collaboration and opportunities for leadership (Clark, Caffarella, Ingram 1994) Other research has shown, however, that mentoring relationships are frequently not as available to women as they are to men (Cook, 1979; Hill et al., 1989; Noe, 1988). Identified barriers that often prevent women from entering into successful mentoring relationships are the good old boys' network (Bierema, 1993; Hall and Sander, 1983), lack of women mentors (Hunt and Michael, 1983; Collard and Stalker, 1991), problems with men mentoring women (Halcomb, 1980; Stalker, 1993), and conflicts between work and family responsibilities (Bierema, 1993; Blunt and Lee, 1994). Establishing mentoring relationships is important in the academic environment, but unfortunately for women, initiating and keeping a relationship with a faculty mentor in the academic environment can be problematic.

The environment in which women work is an important element in shaping women's successes and contributions to leadership (Clark, Caffarella and Ingram 1994; Caffarella, 1993; Prince 1991). Female doctoral students in adult education come from various backgrounds and often may not be familiar with the academic environment. How female students perceive the academic environment determines their engagement in a faculty mentoring relationship within that setting. In the academic setting for doctoral students, however, women are more likely to underestimate their own capabilities in an unfamiliar environment (Prince, 1991). Prince suggests that faculty support is essential in order for students to

be successful in doctoral programs. She also notes that when faculty members take a proactive stance in providing an open environment, female students are encouraged to actively seek mentoring relationships with faculty members.

One viable alternative for women doctoral students to developing faculty mentoring relationships is for students to develop supportive critical friendships with other students (Prince, 1991; Bahniuk, Dobos, and Hill, 1990). These critical friendships with other students may provide more equal footing than faculty mentoring relationships for doctoral students because the critical friendships may allow an exchange between equals and may be more accessible to students than faculty mentoring relationships.

PURPOSE

The purpose of our inquiry was to identify perceived barriers female adult education doctoral students encountered as they tried to form important mentoring relationships with both faculty members and other doctoral students. In order to explore this issue, we focused on three research question:

1) What are the perceived barriers reported by women adult education doctoral students which impede the development of mentoring relationships with both faculty members and other doctoral students?

2) If adult education faculty members are not available to women students as mentors, what other helpful relationships impact the persistence of female students in adult education doctoral programs?

3) What perceptions do female doctoral students have regarding initiating or improving mentoring relationships with faculty members?

METHODOLOGY

This exploratory study utilized a mail survey questionnaire to a sample of 56 female doctoral students in adult and community education in a medium sized midwestern university. We field tested the survey and made revisions to content and design on the basis of suggestions from test subjects and from our own critical reflections of our research questions.

Female students in various stages of the doctoral program were invited to participate in our study. Participants were in various stages of completion of the doctoral program; some respondents reported having completed less than 20 course hours, another group was in the middle stages of the program, having completed 20 hours or more; some had completed all course work and/or exams, and others had graduated. The limitations of our study were that we only surveyed female doctoral students; our study was limited to one adult education doctoral program; and we did not include faculty members or male doctoral students in the study.

The questionnaire consisted of three sections. The first section focused on demographics. The second section utilized a Likert scale (5=strongly agree, 4=agree, 3=not sure, 2=disagree, 1=strongly disagree) which enabled respondents to respond to questions concerning mentoring relationships. Another component of this section consisted of a similar Likert scale (5=essential, 4=important, 3=not sure, 2=somewhat important, 1=not important) which allowed respondents to rate a list of necessary elements to developing and maintaining mentoring relationships. The third section of the survey included open ended questions in which respondents described mentoring relationships with faculty members and other doctoral students.

FINDINGS

Demographics: Participants indicated a high degree of interest in the subject of mentoring as demonstrated by the 70 percent response rate to this survey. The average reported age of the

respondents was 44 years. The majority of the respondents were Caucasian; only two respondents reported minority status (one African-American, one Asian). Most respondents (53 percent) lived 51 to 100 miles from campus. Twenty-six percent of the respondents were graduates of the program; twenty-one percent had completed all but their dissertations (ABD); ten percent had completed 20-39 hours of course work; and twenty-six percent had completed 20 hours of course work or less. Those who had completed 40 plus hours of course work, or had completed course work, comprised seven percent of the respondents respectively. Of those reporting employment status, 68 percent were employed full time; 11 percent were employed part-time; five percent were employed full time while in addition holding down part-time positions; one respondent reported being unemployed; and 19 percent did not report employment status.

Respondents reported various disciplines for their masters degrees; however, the area most represented was nursing, with 34 percent of respondents holding degrees in that area. Other disciplines reported were gerontology and counseling, with nine percent each; six percent of the respondents reported holding a masters degree in adult education.

Mentoring Relationships: Responses to questions regarding mentoring relationships with faculty members revealed that female doctoral students strongly agreed that they wished to develop mentoring relationships with faculty members. In addition, although respondents felt that they had good professional relationships with faculty members, they were "not sure" whether or not they had developed a mentoring relationship with any one member of the faculty. However, respondents reported that they had established supportive relationships with other female doctoral students, and they identified these relationships as providing important support that allowed them to persist and/or complete the doctoral program.

Elements for Faculty Mentoring: One hundred percent of the respondents reported that the willingness of faculty members to spend time meeting with students along with faculty members serving as a sounding board for students' ideas were essential or important elements to developing and maintaining supportive mentoring relationships. Encouragement from faculty members was rated as essential or important by ninety-seven percent of the respondents. Eighty-six percent of respondents felt that students having time to build relationship(s) with faculty members was essential or important. Elements of lesser importance to students were: faculty members helping students write proposals for presentations; faculty members helping students to publish; and willingness of faculty members to collaborate with students on presentations or publications. Forty-one percent of respondents indicated that faculty members providing job leads was essential or important. Emerging important elements in mentoring relationships from this section of the survey were "time", both faculty members' time and students' time. Equally important to respondents was encouragement from faculty members.

Elements for Supportive Relationships with Other Doctoral Students: Ninety-five percent of the respondents reported that encouragement from other students, students' willingness to spend time building relationships, and "time" were essential or important to developing and maintaining supportive mentoring relationships with other doctoral students. Ninety-two percent responded that it was essential or important for students to serve as a sounding board for ideas, while seventy-three percent indicated that similar interests were essential or important to form and maintain supportive relationships.

Open-ended Responses: When asked in open-ended questions to list other factors that were important elements for building mentoring relationships with faculty, respondents listed communication, trust and caring, encouragement to both complete the degree and to publish and present research, time to build mutual interests, and assistance from faculty in customizing coursework to fit students' academic/intellectual pursuits. The issues of communication and time seemed to be important elements which appeared in different ways throughout the women's comments. One student reported that faculty should "provide information on conferences, seminars, etc. - particularly to part-time students". This remark reflected both a concern with communication from faculty regarding important

issues for students; it also reflects the students' concern with their use of time as a part-time student.

Students were also asked to list other factors that they perceived to be important to developing relationships with other doctoral students. Again the word "time" appeared; as one student said, "time to socialize before and after class to get to know each other." Another student said "Commuter students have to be willing to share ideas and develop relationships".

In addition to listing factors important to developing mentoring relationships, women students were also asked several key questions concerning their perceptions of barriers to forming mentoring relationships with both faculty and other doctoral students. Among those most commonly listed were distance from campus; lack of time, busy schedules for both students and faculty members; and family constraints. Women students also reported concerns that that no female faculty members were available for mentoring relationships in the adult education department, and one respondent suggested that "even a part-time female faculty member would be helpful as far as developing a mentoring relationship".

When reporting impediments to developing relationships with other doctoral students, students again reported that "time" and commuting frequently prevented them from pursuing supportive friendships with other students. Students also commented that other responsibilities, such as children and family commitments, combined with working either full-time and part-time and on the doctoral degree, infringed on any time they might spend cultivating supportive relationships with other students.

While a few women students reported that developing relationships with other doctoral students "has not happened to date", most women reported that they had developed friendships with other doctoral students. Their supportive contacts consisted of commuting together, "crying on each others shoulders", sharing meals, and forming study groups. Phoning each other to offer encouragement, particularly when writing papers or during exams, was another activity listed as important in helping show support for other doctoral students. The majority of the women reporting in these open ended questions mentioned friendships with female doctoral students, although, as one student said, friendships with other doctoral students are "gender free", and some women reported more friendships with male students than female students.

When asked to report additional helpful relationships outside of the adult education program, respondents reported that they had developed mentoring relationships with others, either in the workplace, where they receive encouragement to complete their degree, or in other academic departments at the university. In addition to or in the absence of other doctoral students, women reported that they pursued supportive friendships to help them to persist in and complete their studies.

DISCUSSION

The barriers reported by women in this survey were similar to those reported in earlier research (Cook, 1979; Hall and Sander, 1983; Hunt and Michael, 1983; Noe, 1988; Hill et al, 1989; Collard and Stalker, 1991; Prince, 1991; Bierema, 1993; Stalker, 1993; Blunt and Lee, 1994). The major barrier identified by the respondents to developing both mentoring relationships with faculty and critical friendships with students was "time". When students discussed their own lack of available time to pursue mentoring relationships, they indicated that the lack of time was connected to their other roles as women outside of the academic setting. These roles included full-time employment, part-time employment, family commitments, personal relationships, parenting children, community responsibilities and church involvement. Despite reporting these other constraints on their time, women still indicated strong willingness and aspirations to develop mentoring relationships either with faculty members or with other doctoral students.

Although respondents reported having strong professional relationships with faculty members, many noted that they were "not sure" that they had developed a mentoring relationship with any one member of the faculty. The perceptions of being "not sure" about a mentoring relationship seemed to be correlated with their state of completion in the doctoral program. This may reflect the respondents'

unfamiliarity with the academic environment, particularly in the early stages of the program, and their perceptions of a "chilly environment" (Collard & Stalker, 1991).

Many of the women who reported limitations to developing mentoring relationships voiced apprehension about initiating a mentoring relationship with faculty members. One woman responded, "Are we supposed to have a mentoring relationship?" Another woman reported "I need to know the right questions to get helpful information". Still another women said "I have to seek help", indicating that she was uncomfortable initiating a relationship. Some respondents indicated that they would have preferred to have at least one female faculty member to approach in order to establish a mentoring relationship. The responses of the women indicated that the path to actively seeking faculty mentoring relationships is not clearly defined to them within the academic environment, and that they were clearly uncomfortable with the notion of seeking out supportive relationships for themselves with faculty members. In addition, they perceived some difficulties in setting meeting times with faculty members.

Survey respondents reported that they had established supportive relationships with other doctoral students. The types of support students received from these relationships included study partners, shared resources, encouragement and emotional support, validation, and caring. Since over 50 percent of the respondents traveled between 50 and 100 miles to attend classes, many of these relationships developed through sharing rides to and from the university, indicating that "time" again is a factor in both the willingness to establish or maintain a supportive relationship.

A small number of respondents asserted that they had "no time" to establish or develop any mentoring relationships with either faculty or other doctoral students due to commitments outside of the academic setting. This same group, however, reported other supportive relationships, such as work, family, and friends. The social aspect of establishing supportive relationships which provide affirmation and encouragement to continue in the doctoral program appears to positively influence the persistence of female adult education doctoral students.

The high return rate (seventy percent) of our survey indicates the validity of our inquiry into the nature of mentoring relationships among female doctoral students in adult education. Female doctoral students clearly perceived barriers to establishing mentoring relationships with faculty members and other doctoral students and were eager to discuss these barriers. Their responses emphasized their strong needs for social support and affirmation as doctoral students, and that they perceived their needs are not always being met for a variety of reasons. Implications for practice demonstrate a need for clear communications between female doctoral students and faculty members concerning their interests in establishing mentoring relationships. Furthermore, it is important for adult education faculty members to provide a safe climate which encourages female students to explore establishing faculty mentoring relationships. Female doctoral students clearly do not want to remain on the outside of faculty mentoring relationships. Future inquiries should focus on further illuminating how female doctoral students can become pro-active in establishing mentoring relationships necessary for their development as leaders in adult education.

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HELPING ADULTS MANAGE MATH ANXIETY

Toni Gammage

ABSTRACT

Success in math depends on much more than the acquisition of knowledge and skills; beliefs which adults hold about themselves and education also influence the learning outcome.
Math anxiety is a common of these beliefs among Adult Basic Education (ABE) students. This paper presents a conceptual framework describing the connection of learning blocks and beliefs which are then interwoven with innovative strategies that focus on developing psychological, prior to mathematical, aspects of learning. Adapting verbal and written strategies in ABE classes offers enduring practices for adults to cultivate success in acquiring a GED diploma and utilizing math throughout their lives.

INTRODUCTION

Math anxiety is a problem for adult learners which affects all areas of their lives and can prevent educational or economic success. Although successful programs have been developed to counter math anxiety at the college level, and curriculum specialists in elementary education have begun to address this concern, little information exists for helping ABE students.

Math anxiety is a physiological, emotional, and cognitive reaction to a block in learning. This condition is described as a "panic" which impedes normal functioning so much so that the skills needed for learning and performing are unobtainable (Kogelman and Warren, 1978). Math anxiety can be traced to certain implicit beliefs adults hold about themselves and education which affect their self confidence and performance. In order for students to progress, these implicit beliefs must be uncovered and examined.

Using a conceptual framework delineating the impact of emotional beliefs on learning, strategies are employed for the adult to reflect on past experiences in verbal and written modes, clarify learning needs, and investigate educational and cultural barriers. The varied levels of adults' learning abilities and styles, and the flexible, individualized nature of ABE instruction offer an environment conducive to utilizing these activities.

Unearthing the beliefs of adults opens up immense possibilities for putting into practice several tenets of adult education. Adult students have rejected traditional schooling for various reasons. Beliefs about the self and education are considered to be psychosocial barriers to participation (Darkenwald and Merriam, 1982). Research in retention of ABE students documents the need for strategies which elicit student perceptions of their beliefs and calls for connections to participation (Dirkx, 1992). The following approaches offer connections, or what Quigley (1992) calls "crossover points" between K-12 content and adult learning to reach the goal of "understanding long-term influences on motivation and learning ability" (p.118).

MATH ANXIETY AND ADULT STUDENTS

As an ABE/GED instructor, I have heard many students who are capable in other subjects express fears and negative beliefs about math. Jason, a 21 year old, Native American, relates: "Oh. Math. When it came to math, other others worked the problems so fast on the board, I wasn't able to keep up and then I felt dumb, so I messed around during class. Later I left school. Some people can do math, others can't." The mention of any math concept from fractions to algebra often provokes outspoken feelings of dread and inadequacy, frank admissions of purposeful avoidance, or confessions of bad experiences. Such feelings are illustrated with physical signs of dejection such as lowered shoulders and tremorous voices--in other words, math anxiety.

Powell (1986) refers to the anxious adult's relationship to math as a "progressive estrangement." Years of avoidance and coping techniques such as depending on friends and family to do everyday math tasks like handling the checkbook or household budget, trusting that store clerks will charge prices precisely or dispense change accurately, and relying on banks and computers to record correct amounts, take a heavy toll. Studies have shown that at the outset of math instruction, the adult becomes so caught up in negative feelings from past experiences, that learning is difficult or even blocked (Kogelman and Warren, 1978; Spangler, 1992; and Tobias, 1991).

Math anxiety keeps many ABE students from completing the series of General Educational Development (GED) tests necessary for a high school equivalency diploma. Students in ABE/GED classes frequently delay taking the math portion of the GED test. In the period from July 1992 to April 1993, 304 students in the Omaha Public Schools passed one or more tests of the GED, but did not complete the entire GED. Only 5 men and 1 woman completed the math section. Similar results were evidenced in my ABE/GED classroom during this same time frame. Thirteen students have taken GED tests yet only one student has successfully passed the mathematics portion of the test. What can be done at the outset of a student's ABE/GED program to allay math fears, and lessen the chances of putting off the GED math test, or even dropping out of the program entirely?

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

If we accept math anxiety as an ingrained belief, the learner will require on-going techniques for recognizing and working through anxiety each time math is encountered. Douglas McLeod (1991), a specialist in researching the role of affect in math education, provides a conceptual framework, traced through research on the psychological theories of behaviorism, psychoanalysis, developmental psychology, and constructivism, for this purpose. He defines "affect" as a "wide range of beliefs, feelings, and moods beyond the domain of cognition, such as anxiety, confidence, frustration, and satisfaction" (p.56). McLeod identifies a three-part process that takes place during learning wherein beliefs are identifed, blocks in learning accepted, and attitudes are transformed. The use of McLeod's three-part process is interwoven with suggested strategies which can enable adults to become aware of the memories and myths which rule their apprehension, and which, when confronted, will help them to manage math anxiety.

1) STUDENTS HOLD CERTAIN BELIEFS ABOUT THEMSELVES AND MATH THAT CONTRIBUTE TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF AFFECTIVE RESPONSES

A learner develops a belief to cope with her or his confusion about the block in learning. Three general types of beliefs overlap within learners' psyches: about the self, culture, and math. Many adults creatively and consistently avoid math because they've accepted either early failures or stereotypical myths about math. Comments such as: "I just couldn't do it," or "I'm not a math person," or "I'll never use algebra anyway," are alarmingly common and indicative of these beliefs. Strategies at this stage require caution--the purposes are to bring memories to the surface in a safe environment and identify factors contributing to the belief. The learner may have internalized the past failure, without considering the possibilities of shortcomings among instructors, peers, curricula, school environment, or the culture. The damaged self-esteem that results from personalizing learning blocks has a particularly virulent effect. Tobias (1991) found that "people who do well at math are confident, hard-working, experienced, and willing to take risks", whereas "math anxiety feeds on helplessness and lack of control" (p.92). She advises students to write a "math autobiography" detailing past failures and successes with math, specifying the period of schooling when math became problematic, situational factors such as illness, frequent moves, and attitudes of relatives, friends, or teachers. Then, relaxation techniques and coping skills such as deep breathing and visualization are taught. Oxrieder and Ray (1982) provide checklists of stereotypes about math and learners intended for generating class discussion.

2) BLOCKS AND INTERRUPTIONS OF UNDERSTANDING ARE AN INEVITABLE PART OF LEARNING (PARTICULARLY WHEN NEW CONCEPTS OR TASKS ARE INTRODUCED) THAT ELICIT BOTH NEGATIVE AND POSITIVE EMOTIONS

The "interruption" presents the opportunity for a teachable moment, thus enabling student and instructor to recognize the challenges that come with learning. Blocks may be interpreted as beliefs in several ways. The adult may believe it is her/his problem alone--that s/he is less competent than others. They may have globalized an unsuccessful math experience to be the norm--which then includes all math (or school) activities in the future. The adult may believe that learning should happen quickly, or not at all. Powell (1986) notes that students may avoid asking questions which would enhance understanding in traditional math courses because of the fast pace of the set curriculum which forces learners to memorize rules just to keep up with class. In response to these beliefs, Spangler (1992) recommends an unhurried demeanor in the classroom and discussion of open-ended questions about the past influence of classroom environment, peer and teacher behavior, and stereotypes about math. She also enlists the use of role models for students: "Describe someone in your class or school or life who you think is mathematically talented; describe their characteristics" (p. 151). Support systems are developed within and outside of class by gathering responses in small groups or by interviewing other adults. Through this communication effort, students are able to release some anxiety and view their perceptions in light of the similar experiences shared by other adults. They find they're not alone in this struggle any longer.

3) REPEATED ENCOUNTERS WITH CERTAIN MATH CONCEPTS WILL FORGE THE DEVELOPMENT OF NEGATIVE OR POSITIVE ATTITUDES

Written communication is vital in this effort because "writing helps students clarify their own understanding and, for students who prefer written over quantitative expression, it provides a strategy more suited to their interests and abilities" (Wood, 1992, p.96). In his work with underprepared students in remedial, developmental math classes Powell (1986) saw the need to move from a traditional teaching mode to one where students focus on themselves in active learning through dialogue journals, creative writing, and problem-generating processes. The following questions are guides for journaling: "Describe any discoveries you have made about mathematics or yourself. What confused you today? What did you like?" (p.184). The journals serve as a source of questions and as a self-monitoring guide for learning and changes in the students' attitudes about math. At the end of the semester, Powell noticed a high correlation between development of problem-solving ability and extent of reflection apparent in their writing. In addition to personal development, the dialogic journals hold much promise for ABE students to enrich both their math and writing levels for the GED test series.

Key skills such as analysis, comparison, and synthesis were also found to be strengthened in an exploratory study of writing in algebra. Intriguing findings from Miller and England (1989) show that students wrote more if they directed their remarks to someone else, and also if the prompts were simply-worded or a single question: Remember when you learned how to _____? Imagine that you are writing a note to your best friend to explain how to do _____. Write your note, assuming that your friend really wants to know how to do _____, and that s/he must rely on you and only you for an explanation." The study concluded that significant gains were achieved in "what the teachers learned about the individual student's affective and instructional needs" (p.310).

Implementation of these strategies allows work on anxiety relief to become an integrated, on-going learning experience. Each of McLeod's three factors also require feedback from the instructor. Natural assets for evaluation of learning are contained in the variety of belief exercises, dialogue journals, and anecdotal observations about student behavior. Rather than solely "checking work", the instructor should confer with the adult and note student persistence, confidence, cooperation, communication and quality of math constructions," (Wheatley, 1992).

CONCLUSION

The adult who tentatively steps into an ABE classroom bears an emotional backpack heavy with memories, experiences, and beliefs about school. The disabling effects of anxiety are not limited to math alone; similar beliefs have been discovered in science and computer education. Perhaps we have underestimated the impact of beliefs in imposing on individuals the attitude that they simply do not possess the capability for mathematical thought and task. More research is needed to examine the types of beliefs held by adults, assess the effects of different strategies, and determine the characteristics of successful approaches. In-service training is critical in implementing change in practice. ABE instructors also need to examine their own beliefs and practice facilitation skills. Required components in managing math anxiety include the development of new materials that challenge cultural myths about math, and increased attention to an instructional environment that truly values the experiences of learners.

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THE IMPLICATIONS OF SITUATED COGNITION AND AUTHENTIC ACTIVITY ON ADULTS LEARNING TO WRITE

Catherine A. Hansman-Ferguson

ABSTRACT

Adult learners who enter universities frequently test into developmental or remedial writing classes. Some of these writing classes are held in computer labs. The process of learning to write in a computer lab is a complex task that has not previously been examined from a situated view of learning. Using the paradigm of naturalistic inquiry, this study examines the learning situation in which developmental writing students at a midwestern university who used computer labs for their writing classes learned to write, examining the social context of the computer lab, the authentic activity for writing provided by the computer lab, and the attitudes of students toward both writing and computers.

INTRODUCTION

In typical entry level developmental writing courses at universities, many adult students see themselves as non-writers. The teaching task, then, becomes to help transform these students into writers. Traditional approaches to teaching writing assume writing is an individual cognitive activity and fail to examine the effects of the context of the learning situation, or "how knowing and learning do not exist independently of the activity" (Wilson, 1993, p. 76). Situated views of learning contend that learning is structured by people interacting with each other in tool dependent environments (Lave, 1988). Lave's study of adults using math in authentic situations such as grocery stores implies that in order to fully understand the learning process, teachers of adults should be aware of the actions learners take, the tools they use, and the social relationships they form during learning. Brown, Collins and Duguid (1989) report that people who use tools actively when learning new knowledge build "a rich understanding of the world in which they use the tools and of the tools themselves" (p. 33). Vygotsky (1962) contends that learning to write is a social process where individuals move from social speech to inner speech through talking and listening to each other; furthermore, Vygotsky states, writing is a complex relationship between language, thought, and experience. The ability to clearly express oneself in writing is important because human beings are social animals and use language, both spoken and written, to make sense out of the world (Lindemann, 1987).

One way that adults make sense out of their world through writing is in computer writing labs at universities. Frequently, however, these adult writing students have had little or no prior experiences using computers. When students have no prior experience with microcomputers, the learning experience is without precedent for learners; that is, individuals do not have personal images of themselves as successful learners with computers (DeJoy, 1991, p. 36). Many times adults, particularly those with little or no computer experience, have a great deal of apprehension of both computers and writing when they enter a writing class in which computers will be used. Studies of adults who have used computers and word processors to learn to write have focused on comparing groups of students who learn to write in the computer lab with those who learn to write in a traditional classroom. Typically, these studies also look at improvements in students writing, how much students revise, and whether using computers decreased students apprehension toward writing (French, 1991; Teichman and Poris, 1989). What has not been addressed, however, is how the social situation of the computer lab may provide the authentic activities that allow students to more readily apply principals of writing. Authentic activity is defined by Wilson as "situations in which actual cognitive processes are required rather than the decontextualized one typically demanded in schooling" (1993, p. 339). Instead of knowledge being presented in a pedagogic manner, situated views of learning suggest that coaching, modeling, and practicing be embedded in learning situations (Wilson, 1993; Schon 1987). In the computer writing lab, the occasions to use the computers as tools for writing arise directly out of the assigned writing projects and learning activities. The computer writing lab can provide a context for learning which provides authentic activity to students struggling to learn to write.

Lave (1988) describes cognition as being structured by both setting and activity. Tarvers (1993) has described the computer classroom as a place where the teacher can release some of his or her authority to the learners and their computers, allowing the students to learn collaboratively and form peer networks for support while using computers as tools to learn to write. DeJoy (1991) suggests that through using computers to teach writing, teachers of adults can meet the needs of individuals while seeing to it that learners are central to the process of learning. She also suggests that computers can provide support to individual learners while they interact with other students through discussions and exercises, allowing them to form peer support groups.

How and why computer writing labs can foster these collaborative peer networks among students and provide authentic activity that enables students to transfer writing knowledge into relevant experiences has not been the subject of systematic research. This study is significant because it establishes a framework for understanding how adults learn in computer labs and how computer labs may be a natural context for learning to write. Through studying adults who are learning to write in a setting which provides authentic activity and a social culture for learning to write, instructors of adults can understand how to better design writing activities which will empower students to learn and to become writers.

RESEARCH INQUIRY

This qualitative study of adult developmental writing students who used computers in their writing classes answers several important research questions concerning computers as tools and social setting as an important context for providing adult learners authentic activity to help them learn to write. The specific research questions were: How do computers aid adults with their writing tasks? How does the computer lab provide authentic activity that allows learning to write to take place? How do social relationships formed among students enhance the process of learning to write?

Qualitative case study increases "understanding of the phenomenon by clarifying concepts, generating hypotheses, or constructing explanatory frameworks...appropriate to use where there is little knowledge about the problem." (Merriam and Simpson, 1989, p. 90). Since examining how the context of the computer lab affects how students learn to write at universities has not previously been the subject of inquiry, the case study approach was utilized in this paradigm of naturalistic inquiry (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Case study is "an ideal design for understanding and interpreting observations of educational phenomena" (Merriam, 1988, p. 2).

Writing classes at the midwestern university which was the site for this study are comprised of both traditional aged and adult students. The researcher asked adult students in two different sections of developmental writing which met in the computer lab to participate in this study. Seven adults, ranging in age from 23 to 29, agreed to be interviewed by the researcher. Of the seven, five were women, four of whom were single mothers, and two were single men. Four of the women and both men were Caucasian; one woman was African-American. Besides being part-time or full-time students, all respondents also worked either full or part-time. Four of the respondents said that the writing class was their first college class; the other three respondents had taken previous developmental writing classes in traditional classrooms but had not passed these classes. Most respondents had little or no experience with computers when they began the writing class in the computer lab.

Each of the seven student respondents met with the researcher for face-to-face semi-structured individual interviews at the beginning and end of the semester. Individual responses from interviews were taped, the tapes were transcribed verbatim and coded, and emerging themes and patterns were continually examined and placed into categories. Additionally, students were asked to reflect in writing upon their own changes in their writing, how they used computers as tools for writing, and the relationships they had formed with other members of the writing class. These written assignments were also analyzed for themes, sorted, and placed into categories to gain further insight into students' perceptions of computers as tools, the context in which they learned to write, and the writing activities in which students engaged.

FINDINGS

Regardless of their backgrounds with computers, initial interviews with respondents revealed apprehension, both of writing and the computers used for writing, as a category in this study. In later interviews, respondents described their processes of learning to write in terms of writing experiences with the computer, the computers as tools for writing, control over their own learning and writing, and social interactions within the computer lab.

Apprehension Toward Writing and Computers: One respondent who had used computers before expressed the least apprehension toward using them in the writing class. When asked to describe her previous experiences with computers, she described her experiences as playing games on the computer but said that "we have always had a computer at home." She was the only respondent who had actually chosen to take the writing class in the computer lab; the other respondents had not known the class would be held in the computer lab and were surprised the first day of class to find themselves in a computer lab for a writing class. Respondents with little or no computer experience expressed varying levels of apprehension toward writing on computers in the computer lab. One student's description of her first day of class is telling of the apprehension she felt:

> I had no idea this class would be in the computer lab - no one told me. If I could I would have walked out. The panic came that first day. I went home and cried for about three hours at the thought of what I might have to face and fear of the unknown.

Other students described lesser degrees of apprehension, most stating that although they did not know much about computers, they were eager to begin to learn, explaining that "once I get to know how to use the computer, it (writing) will get easier." However, these students also expressed fears and apprehension of learning how to write while at the same time trying to learn an unfamiliar word processor for writing.

This apprehension toward computers and writing changed by the end of the semester. The same student who reported crying at the beginning of the semester said "I like them (computers) more now than when class started because before I was scared of them. Now I'm not scared of them." Students who used the computers more both during and outside of class reported less apprehension sooner than those students who were reluctant to write using the computer.

Writing Experiences with the Computer: In initial interviews, students were asked to describe how they thought the computer might help them with their writing. One student, when describing her perceptions of the advantages of using computers for writing, said that computers would help her "a lot" because "it does spell check for you, you can move stuff around. By hand, you have to rewrite it all. By computer you just move it from one area to another." Another student expressed hope that it would help her make less mistakes in her writing, saying:

> It is a lot easier than typing because I'm not a very good typist. I make a lot of mistakes. It saves a lot of time because I know I make a lot of mistakes typing and I have to use that white out stuff on regular paper. On the computer I don't have to redo it.

In interviews later in the semester, each respondent clearly described the development of a process they had devised to write his or her assignments using the computer. The process described by each respondent was similar: Most respondents started generating ideas on the computer or with pencil and paper, then typed a first draft of their essay. Once the essay was on the computer, respondents reported that they made changes and revisions frequently based on both instructor and peer feedback, sometimes making these changes during feedback sessions.

As the semester progressed, most respondents described their writing experiences with computers in positive terms. In their written reflections concerning their writing, respondents reported using the computer more habitually as the semester progressed. In early writing assignments, students reported using computers as a typewriter to type up the final drafts of writing assignments. By the end of the semester, however, most students reported starting their writing assignments directly on the computer. One respondents said:

> I'm getting more into the computer, you know, it's starting to be like my first choice for writing. Instead of writing out my essay on paper first, I put it right into the computer. The only problem with that is that I don't have it (computer) at home. So unless I print it out and make all kinds of notes at home, I get stretched for time. But other than that, I like using the computers. That has become a big part of writing my papers now.

As this respondent reported, two issues, "time" and "access to a computer at home", became important themes that surfaced in remarks from respondents' discussions concerning their experiences with computers for writing assignments. Respondents reported that not having a computer at home hindered their process of learning to write because "distance from school" made it difficult to return to school to use the computers. In addition, single mothers reported conflicts with work and family situations that hindered their ability to use computers at the university for completing writing assignments outside of class. Nevertheless, by the end of the semester, all respondents seemed to have navigated around the issues of time and access to computers and developed their own processes for writing essays using computers.

Computers as Tools for Writing: Without prompting from the interviewer, all respondents described computers as "tools" for writing. When asked to describe what they meant by "tools", two themes emerged: functions within the word processor that they perceived as helpful to improving their writing, and being able to visually see what they had written displayed on the computer monitor screen. Respondents listed the ability to check spelling as being helpful to improving their writing. The other function on the computer that they reported as helpful was the cut and paste feature, which helped them easily revise their essays. Students had also been shown how to use a grammar checker, and a few students reported that this function on the computer helped them correct errors in their writing and made them more confident about their writing.

Some students said that being able to see what they had written printed on the computer screen helped them because "it was easier to read." Another respondent said "just being able to see what I am writing as I am writing it helps me write better and more. It makes writing easier." Another student mentioned that "seeing the writing visually on the screen helps a lot. I can go through every paragraph and actually find my mistakes before printing. Being able to see it and how will look helps my writing."

Control over their own Writing: Respondents reported feelings of having more control over what and how they wrote than when using pens, paper, and typewriters. One student remarked:

> I make changes, but I don't want to change everything. I don't have to rewrite the whole thing - I can make changes wherever I want, and I can add whatever I want. I can keep everything the way I want them.

The sense that the computer gave them control over their time and their writing surfaced frequently in the respondents' comments concerning writing. When asked to describe how writing with computers was different than writing without computers, one student responded:

> I like computers a lot better than typewriters. Way back when in high school we did writing on typewriters, but I didn't feel comfortable with it. I didn't feel near as comfortable as I do with computers 'cause I can correct everything. I don't feel like I have to do it fast or anything like that. It gives me time.

Social Interactions: All respondents reported both in interviews and in writing that they had formed social relationships with other students. Respondents said that peers were helpful to them when they critiqued each other's writing, frequently correcting grammar mistakes and other errors. When respondents were asked to describe the relationships they had formed with other students in the writing lab, they described interactions involved critiquing each others' essays and also helping each other understand how to use the computers. When critiquing other students' essays, respondents expressed concerns that their comments to their peers could occasionally be misinterpreted by other students. Likewise, students sometimes mistrusted comments other students made concerning their essays, saying that the other students frequently were "too polite" and did not give them an honest evaluation of their work. However, when asked to report helpful comments from students, respondents reported examples such as "grammar problems", "needs transitions between paragraphs," and "I don't understand your thesis." All respondents reported getting some form of help from other students in the class during peer critiques. One women reported "the more peer critiques I did, the better my writing seemed to get to other people. They would say 'you didn't do this, you didn't do that.' So my writing became better." Students also reported getting continual help and information from other students concerning how to use computers.

DISCUSSION

> Before this writing class, I couldn't understand why my writing wasn't good enough
> But now I understand that, even though my writing has only changed a little bit,
> how important that my writing skills got to be decent to get a better job and
> for writing for higher education.

The above remark from one of the respondents in this study sums up the opinions of students at the end of the writing classes. All the respondents reported changes in their attitudes toward writing and computers. These changes incorporated the notion of respondents having control of and being able to improve their own writing. But how did students become aware that they could take charge and improve their own writing? First, students described the authentic activity which took place in the computer lab of drafting and revising essays using computers. They also described using functions on the computer, such as spell and grammar checks, that helped them improve their writing. Next, students clearly felt that they learned about writing through socially interacting with other students in the writing classroom, getting help using computers and receiving feedback.

How can teachers of writing to adults incorporate the concepts of authentic activity and situated cognition into the computer writing classroom? What is the significance of the context of the computer lab to learning to write? Clearly, the implications for practice are enormous. Teachers of writing in computer labs can provide the environment that allows the authentic activity of writing to take place by designing assignments which allow students to first explore the computer, and later, use the computer as a tool for writing. Teachers can also create learning situations that allow students to interact frequently with each other, which in turn will create a social context for using computers to learn to write.

Tarvers contends that writing teachers of adults cannot simply allow students to "be plopped down in front of machines and expect miracles" (1993, p. 80). Gay (1991) says writing instructors can empower basic writers to take increasing responsibility for their writing ability, development, and learning. She also calls for teachers to use computer labs as a means for "engaging basic writers as subjects rather than objects of study" (p. 77) to help shape environments that can empower basic writers to speed up the learning process and allow them to write independently. This study reveals that the computer lab used to teach writing to adult students provides authentic activity, creates a context for learning which allows students to develop helpful social relationships with other students, empowers students to take control over their own learning and writing; and aids them in overcoming their apprehension toward writing. In short, computer labs used to teach writing enable adult students to transform into writers.

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A STUDY OF HIGHLY SKILLED FIELD SERVICE TECHNICIANS USING A GROUNDED THEORY APPROACH: IMPLICATIONS FOR TECHNICAL CURRICULA

Richard J. Huber, Ph. D.

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this report is to summarize the findings of a qualitative research study (Huber, 1992) that examined the *real world* experiences of highly skilled field service technicians, referred to as informants, to improve technical education curricula. This research effort applied the *grounded theory approach* described by Strauss and Corbin (1990) to analyze 54 critical incidents experienced by nine informants while serving equipment and satisfying the needs of customers.

This report focuses on a phenomenon that emerged from an analysis of the experiences of the informants described by the researcher as, *adaptive networking skills.* Adaptive networking skills are those interpersonal communication strategies used by the informants to deal with difficult interpersonal and equipment servicing problems.

This study revealed three significant discoveries. First, interpersonal communication skills serve as a core ability needed by the informants to deal with difficult equipment and interpersonal problems on the job. Second, the findings suggest that the informants use their *adaptive networking skills* to build and maintain a personal support network to ensure access to technical assistance, feedback, and support on a timely basis. Finally, this study generated eight grounded theoretical constructs that may be used by educators and practitioners to enhance technical education curricula.

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this report is to share the findings of a research study (Huber, 1992) that examined the *real world* experiences of highly skilled field service technicians in order to improve technical education curricula. The study focused on 54 critical incidents experienced by nine incumbent field service technicians, or *informants,* while servicing equipment and keeping customers satisfied.

Huber's study used an interviewing process based on the behavioral event interviewing questions developed by McClelland (1976). This data gathering technique allowed the researcher to record those behaviors, thoughts, intentions, and feelings that was perceived to be important by the informants to keep equipment running and customers satisfied. The informants' experiences were than analyzed following the grounded theory procedures and techniques described by Strauss & Corbin (1990) to generate grounded theoretical constructs that purport to enhance the development of technical education curricula.

RESEARCH FINDINGS

Ultimately, this study concentrated on a central phenomenon that emerged from the data that the researcher described as *adaptive networking skills. Adaptive networking skills* are a sub category of *adaptive skills* that focus on the interpersonal communication strategies used by the informants while keeping equipment running and customers satisfied. Fine (1989) described *adaptive skills* as:

> Competencies which enable people to manage themselves in relation to the demands of conformity and/or change in response to the physical, interpersonal and organizational conditions of a job.
>
> Examples: Management of oneself in relation to authority; to impulse control; to moving towards, away from, or against others; to space (sense of direction and routing); to time (punctuality and self-pacing); to care of property; to dress (style and grooming). (p. 73)

Drawing heavily upon Fine's description above and other earlier writings (Fine, 1973), Huber defined *adaptive networking skills* as:

> Those interpersonal communication strategies that enable an individual to manage the demands of conformity and/or change in response to the physical, cognitive, and interpersonal intervening conditions that influence the worker while attempting to achieve personal and organizational goals.

The analysis of this central phenomenon, *adaptive networking skills*, revealed three significant discoveries described below.

INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION SKILLS

First, the informants actively engage in seeking information (exchanging information) and providing information (sourcing information) with a wide variety of individuals to do their job. The analysis of experiences described by the informants indicates that interpersonal communication skills are used frequently and serve an essential role in identifying and solving problems with equipment and customers.

Figure 1 illustrates the different channels of communication that the informants described using to obtain help and to assist others on a regular and timely basis while keeping equipment running and customers satisfied.

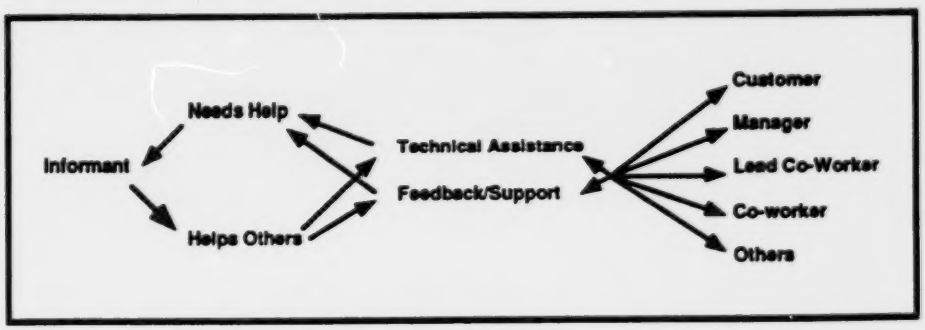

Figure 1
Interpersonal Interactions of Informants

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ADAPTIVE NETWORKING SKILLS

Second, the findings suggest that the informants use their interpersonal communication skills to build and maintain a personal support network to ensure access to technical assistance, feedback and support on a timely basis. In essence, the informants use their adaptive networking skills to cope with change, supplement their own technical expertise, seek feedback and support from a variety of individuals that they consider to be confident, competent, and trustworthy.

Figure 2 is the researcher's view of the major market and technologic forces that are driving field service technicians to develop their adaptive networking skills. Changes in the global marketplace and the growing diversity of installed products along with several other factors are just too much for any one individual to confront alone. On the other hand, the restraining forces include field service technicians armed with: increasingly reliable products; technical skills; interpersonal skills; availability of assistance and feedback are reinforced by a supporting interpersonal network (shown with dotted lines), their *adaptive networking skills*.

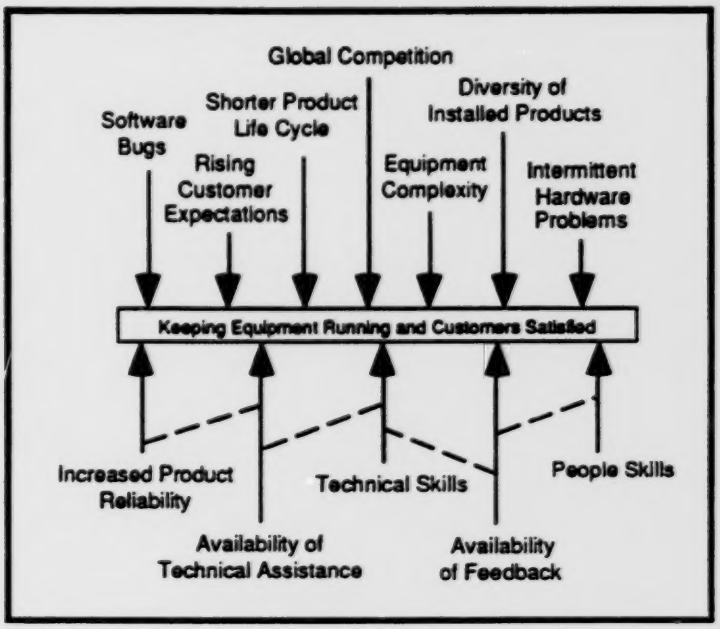

Figure 2
Forces Impacting the Informants

GROUNDED THEORETICAL CONSTRUCTS

Third, the following are eight theoretical constructs that were generated from this grounded theory research study that can be used to enhance technical education curricula.

Construct No. 1:

If unable to solve problems with equipment and customers on a regular basis by themselves; then the informants draw on their adaptive skills and interpersonal communication skills to build and maintain their own personal support network, consisting of co-workers and other subject matter experts, in order to ensure access to information, feedback, and support.

Construct No. 2:

If it is determined that a personal support network is needed; then the informants draw on their adaptive skills to locate co-workers and other subject matter experts that are willing to help them when needed, and use their interpersonal communication skills to develop working relationships with these individuals, in order to build and maintain their own personal support network.

Construct No. 3:

If unable to solve a specific field service problem on a timely basis; then the informants draw on their personal support network to obtain support and/or feedback from co-workers and other subject matter experts, in order to the fix the problem at hand and satisfy the customer.

Construct No. 4:

If assistance in troubleshooting, servicing equipment, and satisfying customers is needed; then the informants usually seek advice and feedback from co-workers and subject matter experts that they know, have confidence in, and trust, in order to obtain help and maintain their professional reputation with their customers.

Construct No. 5:

If lacking technical competence and personal confidence; then the informants are more likely to seek assistance from co-workers and other subject matter experts, sooner and more frequently than individuals who are properly trained and have relevant job experience, in order to compensate for their lack of experience and training.

Construct No. 6:

If equipment cannot be fixed easily and quickly; then the informants increase the frequency of their interpersonal communication with the customer throughout the equipment repair process, in order to decrease the customer's level of dissatisfaction with the specific problem at hand.

Construct No. 7:

If equipment cannot be fixed within a mutually acceptable time; then the informants often use their interpersonal communication skills to maintain their professional credibility and reputation with the customer.

Construct No. 8:

If assistance and/or feedback to solve service problems is needed; then the informants generally contact co-workers and other subject matter experts directly by means of face-to-face discussions, telephone conversations, recorded voice messages, electronic mail messages, and handwritten notes in order to access their personal support network.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, in the grounded theory approach (Strauss & Corbin, 1990), the *story line* serves as a working hypothesis during the data analysis process. The following is the concluding *story line* that emerged from this study.

Concluding Story Line for Adaptive Networking Skills

> *The primary story evolves around how the informants use their interpersonal strategies to manage difficult problems encountered while servicing equipment and satisfying the wants and needs of customers. Basically, the informants' strategies for solving problems involves adapting their interpersonal communication skills to obtain help from others whom they know, have confidence in, and trust. Generally, this is accomplished by building and maintaining a strong personal network with co-workers and other subject matter experts The informant's self-perceived need to ensure access to information, resources, feedback, and support are the primary motivation for building and maintaining their personal resource network.*
>
> *Adaptive networking skills are particularly important to the informants when they are confronted with service problems that cannot be solved by following standard operating procedures. These skills help them to work out solutions for an immediate problem while maintaining the integrity of the established operating procedures. The willingness of the informants to conform to existing procedures, or change to alternative strategies, based on intervening conditions, is an essential adaptive skill they use to keep the equipment running and customer satisfied.*
>
> *The decision to seek assistance from others is strongly influenced by a self-perceived lack of progress being made during the troubleshooting or problem solving process. The informants frequently call for assistance if little or no progress is made within the first three to four hours of the troubleshooting process. Further, the informants' decision to call for help is usually accelerated by pressure from the customer to use the equipment. Also, the informants obtain great personal satisfaction from being able to service equipment and satisfy customers without any assistance. Frequently, their personal pride influences the timing of the decision to seek help from others. However, when help is obtained, whether in person or otherwise, the informants usually continue to actively participate in the servicing of the equipment and sourcing information to the customer.*

Finally, this study discovered that interpersonal communication skills play a vital role in a service technician's ability to keep pace with the rapid changes in servicing high technology-based equipment and achieving customer satisfaction.

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"MIX AND WEIGHT" EXPLORING DIMENSIONS OF CHOICE AND RESPONSIBILITY IN AN ADULT LEARNING CLASSROOM

LaDeane R. Jha and Sean Courtney

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to explore the response of graduate students to a classroom strategy aimed at giving them choice and responsibility in a graduate level course. The strategy, "Mix and Weight," invited students to choose among learning projects and then assign a grading weight to each choice. The findings support recent research showing that adult college students prefer a combination of teaching styles that afford both student-centered and teacher-directed learning. Results show that most students liked the mix and weight strategy, although they were initially confused and apprehensive about the method. Three major themes surrounding Mix and Weight emerged from the data: "paradigm challenge", "knowing the parameters" and "happy somewhere between".

INTRODUCTION

In spite of an extensive body of knowledge on self-directed learning, little empirical effort has focused on the role of the adult educator in facilitating choice and responsibility within the classroom. Apart from Knowle's well-known "learning contract," few models exist that provide a practical classroom approach to learner-choice. Increasing numbers of scholars, however, recognize that learner choice, responsibility, and control are important dynamics within the adult education classroom (Bagnall, 1989; Blowers, 1993; Brookfield, 1988; Caffarella & Caffarella, 1986; Candy, 1991; Cross, 1981; Grow, 1991; Pintrich, 1990; Pratt, 1988, 1992; Tisdale, 1993). Garrison (1992) says that responsibility and control issues are fundamental to the two dominant theoretical frameworks in adult education, critical thinking and self directed learning. He conceptualizes the educational process as learners taking responsibility for creating meaning while at the same time sharing control through communicative actions in a supportive and collaborative setting. It is only when learners assume responsibility for critically assessing content that self-directed learning becomes possible. Learning, then, depends upon both the opportunity and ability to make learning decisions and should be a collaborative process between teacher and learner. Garrison (1989) argues that there are many situations in which learners would give up independence for increased support leading to the desired outcome, an idea somewhat at odds with popular adult learning literature that touts self-direction as the preferred process and/or goal of adult education in every circumstance. Recent related research supports Garrison's work. Ross-Gordon, Donaldson, Flannery & Thompson (1991) reanalyzed three projects that examined students' perception of effective teaching and concluded that adult students in higher education exhibited preferences for both teacher-directed and learner-centered instruction a finding congruent with the work of Tracy & Schuttenberg (1986). Kasworm's (1992) idea of the adult as a "master planner" who uses the teacher a catalyst to learning or as a resource is also congruent with these findings. Models such as Grow's (1991) Staged Self-Directed Learning Mode and Kolb's (1993) experiential learning model are yet other ways in which learner preferences have been studied, and they again emphasize the wide differences found among adult learners and the difficulty faced by the adult educator in facilitating positive learning experiences for all students.

Instructors often encounter negative reactions when they provide more choices and control, especially at first, and an unwillingness by the learners to accept increased responsibility (Candy, 1991). To further complicate the picture, instructors are frequently trapped in a conflict of their own values when it comes to increasing learner-control. Thus, creating a comfortable balance for both adult educator and student is a complex matter. Good teaching based on a personal philosophy of educating adults needs to be modeled according to Hiemstra (1992). He suggests promoting self-direction in learning

by helping learner's take more responsibility by providing a variety of resources and means for presenting information.

However, it seems that although adult theory and research strongly support the need for learner involvement in and control of some or all of the curriculum, they are much less specific about how the practitioner is to accomplish the task and to what degree. How are learners to be given greater control? How does an instructor create a balance that accommodates all students? Within the theoretical framework of self-directed learning, this study explores the issues of choice and responsibility in a graduate adult education classroom. Specifically, it examines the reactions to and efficacy of one approach, "Mix and Weight," to facilitating choice and responsibility as a way to increase learner-control and influence satisfaction with the learning process. Though limited in this instance to a graduate-level, university-based class, the method described here offers the trainer/instructor an innovative technique for providing learners with the opportunity to control two important aspects of course-work: which assignments they are to do and how these assignments contribute to the final grade. The strategy, designed to promote collaboration between teacher and student as well as to offer the opportunity for collaboration with fellow students, serves as a bridge between learner-control and teacher control.

METHODOLOGY

The context for this study is a graduate-level course in adult learning. The course is designed for students in an advanced stage of their program. However, for reasons that are not uncommon, the class, typically, contains both masters and doctoral adult education students, students from other programs unfamiliar with adult education, and a mix of 'novices' and 'experts'. The class of 25, predominantly women, ranged in age from early 20's to early 60's and most members of the class were professional, working people. Partly in response to this reality, as well as to model important aspects of the field's philosophy, the professor gave class members the opportunity to choose projects meaningful to them and then to decide how each project would contribute to their final grade.

"Mix and Weight" was the vehicle chosen by the instructor to provide students with both choice and responsibility in the course. It consisted of five options: a learning autobiography, oral report, written book review, midterm examination and research paper. The first and last were mandatory assignments although a student could decide how to weight them. The instructor felt more comfortable maintaining some control over assignments since this was the first time he had tried such an innovative technique. Each student was to complete at least three assignments and was instructed to weight each assignment by giving it a percentage with the total adding up to 100 percent. For the sake of simplicity and practicality, students were encouraged not to assign less than 10% to any option and to make their percentages multiples of five, e.g., 20, 25, 30, etc.

The study was qualitative in design and exploratory in nature. Data were collected from multiple sources: two focus groups; semi-structured interviews with the instructor and with class members who volunteered to be in the study; course evaluations completed by all students; participant observations of each class and a class journal kept by the primary researcher, a student in the class. The interview schedule was designed by the course's instructor and the senior author, who also moderated the focus group discussions and did the interviews. The focus group sessions were tape recorded and fully transcribed. Throughout the semester-long, weekend class, both student and instructor met continuously to discuss the progress of the study. However, to insure the most candid responses possible, the identity of informants was kept confidential and the instructor did not read transcripts until course grades were in.

We were interested in exploring what it was like to experience choice and to take responsibility for deciding which assignments would be done in class. What did students think of weighting their choices? What factors influenced choices? Did learners perceive Mix and Weight as a capricious whim of the teacher, an opportunity for real self-direction, a painful experiment that they had unwittingly become a part of, or as a thoughtful innovation carried out by an adult educator trying to model concepts to be learned in the course?

FINDINGS

Several major themes concerning Mix and Weight emerged from analysis of focus group and individual transcripts and also from the class evaluations done at the end of the course. These include: "paradigm challenge", "knowing the parameters" and "happy somewhere between".

"Paradigm Challenge". Use of "Mix and Weight" in the classroom was a positive experience for most students after they conquered fears about the change and understood more completely what was expected of them. Paradigm challenge, chaotic, frustrated, excited, upset, confused exasperation, and mad were words and phrases used to describe students' initial reactions. When faced with expectations different from the norm, nearly all students experienced at least momentary confusion and apprehension. However, once they had made choices and received opinions on their first assignment, many were more confident and began to find ways in which the new paradigm would work for them. After introduction of "Mix and Weight", students faced the knowledge that expectations for the class were not planned for them. They were being asked to make choices about how many learning projects they would do and about what percentage of the final grade each would carry. Reactions to this situation included: "I had never seen that before", "A paradigm challenge" and "My impression. . . was one of total confusion and exasperation and frustration." One student, however, seemed to have at least a glimmer of what was being expected. " . . . . my head is saying the process of organizing the class was partly our responsibility because we were supposed to be having input to the class."

What did the professor think about the first night?

> I think to a certain extent students have a sense of what it is to be a student–there are certain routinized practices. If you ask them to do things different from that they . . . have to think about them in a different way . . . It's not a simple thing to say students are self directed, therefore they welcome the opportunity to be self directed.

Why would an instructor introduce an idea that caused such confusion, that suggested a paradigm shift? Accommodating the needs of students at various stages of their graduate programs by challenging them to use their strengths was the answer given when that question was asked. He said, " . . . usually assignments are presented as a fait accompli to students and they have no choices." "Mix and Weight" represented a sincere attempt to model adult learning theory by giving choices and responsibility. A student reflected, " I think the goal of what he was trying to do–get us involved backfired a little bit because of our expectations of what teachers are supposed to do in class and what students are supposed to do."

As students began to think about their choices and weights, some students contacted the professor for additional input, others turned in several choices and asked the instructor to decide for them (he declined to do so) and yet others simply handed in their choices without comment. What were their thoughts as they made choices? How easy was it for them to take responsibility for weighting the choices? Were they able to adjust to the new paradigm? As will be described, many struggled for a time as they got to know the new parameters.

"Knowing the Parameters". A reliance on more traditional methods and expectations was evident in reactions such as, "I need structure"; "I want a big picture"; "I need cue words." " I kinda need that guidance . . ." Being uncomfortable with parameters not being explained was a common theme in this category. One student said, "I need a road map and I need a visual chart . . . " Another student, ". . . (in other classes) all the parameters are there, you don't even need to ask any more questions. It's very clear what you need to do and I didn't feel that way with this . . . I wanted to keep saying what do you mean by this."

How students figured out the new parameters varied. One said, "I love doing papers and truly love to write and do research so I put 40% on that.' Another said that he gave the paper 20% because he really hated spending time at the library. "I hate tests, so I knew right away that I wasn't going to do the midterm" was yet another response. One student was quite eloquent in describing her delight with choice.

Something has happened for me in this class that has not happened before. ...Oh, my goodness, the windows opened and all sorts of stuff just started happening. In doing the research, I feel, for me . . . it made such a difference . . . There's an excitement to it. I can't believe that I'm excited about doing this paper. I'm usually griping and bitching.

Most students had far less trouble making project choices than in weighting those choices. Much of the weighting centered on grades and apprehension about how they would be judged in relation to others in the class, yet another example of figure out the parameters.

"Happy Somewhere Between". A desire for a combination of traditional pedagogical format with another conducive to self-direction was expressed by many students. They indicated a preference for active interactions with classmates and opportunities for choice, but also felt lecture and teacher control was appropriate in many situations. One student describes it as, " I wasn't real comfortable making those choices. I can't say I didn't like it--it was okay making the choices especially when I was told we could renegotiate—It was a new concept for me." When asked to describe their ideal learning situation several students indicated the preference for both choice and teacher control. Several mentioned enjoying interactions with other students and opportunities to learn from student presentations. "I do not mind lecture at all --in fact in many cases I prefer that." Yet another said:

> In some subjects I want the traditional format and in others I am more prone to quote, unquote, self-direction. I guess I prefer a little of each and am happy somewhere in-between there.

The prevailing attitude is summed up by one student.

> I feel there has to be structure as far as content is concerned, but how the content is learned--my feeling is that the learning is the responsibility of the student and the teacher can do all sorts of wonderful things to make it better.

Unanticipated Consequences. It was only after the first assignment was turned in that some challenges of the project became apparent. Although the teacher had been fully prepared to let students make their own choices, he had not anticipated the grading dilemma as he started evaluating the first assignment, the learning autobiography. After reading papers and agonizing over grades, the professor indicated he usually has a grade in mind. However, in this instance, he faced the added complication of the percentage of the class grade a student had given the assignment. How much should the grading criteria differ for a 10% paper as opposed to a 50% paper? Should he base the grade on the choices and percentages contracted, or should he negotiate another percentage with the student in order to give a higher grade? One student had picked 50% for his learning autobiography. Should he give the student a "B" based on percentage of the final grade, or should he ask the student if he would prefer an "A" based on a smaller percentage of the grade. According to the instructor it suddenly became apparent that all autobiographies could not be judged in the same way. What criterion, then, was appropriate? In this instance he talked with the student and they negotiated a change in his percentages. However, when this situation surfaced in one of the focus groups, the student showed resentment of the mix and weight because his percentages were changed. Other students also had percentages changed and their reactions ranged from, a student thinking it was an instance of teacher control, to another who expressed delight in the opportunity to renegotiate. Grading was a concern for a few students. One said, "I don't know how you grade an individual this way. How do you compare what you are doing? We are all doing something different." Interestingly enough, this was a dilemma shared by the instructor. Other implementation and student concerns centered around wanting to know what other classmates were doing, having things more clearly spelled out, and a more clearly defined renegotiation policy. Students, who by nature, less frequently interact with the instructor felt they were not as informed as those with more frequent contact.

REFLECTIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

When asked on class evaluations to respond to the question, "How did you feel about " Mix and Weight," students were universally positive and mostly enthusiastic. One class member said:

> I liked the mix and weight very much! I felt like it was helpful as a busy adult to plan my classwork around my schedule and to anticipate how I need to pace myself. More importantly it gave me an opportunity to do some in-depth work on areas of the class that were most meaningful to me.

While most class members complained that the process wasn't clear to them at first and that it was difficult to make choices, many appreciated the opportunity to concentrate on those projects that made sense to them and to budget their time and juggle their outside responsibilities when necessary. Several said that choices were difficult and one student described it as "a good experience in reflection." Most expressed eventual satisfaction with the weights they had assigned to learning projects although several wished they had known they could renegotiate percentages. While the teacher expressed some reservations about the mix and weight option, he said he would try it again with some modifications. Simplification of the process and making sure people understood the process were primary changes he would make.

These data add important dimensions of depth and richness to student perceptions and set the stage for a more elaborate and disciplined future study. The preliminary findings support much of the emergent research in the area of control, choice and responsibility, particularly Garrison's (1992) idea that external control can be shared but learners must assume responsibility for critically assessing and making meaning of the educational process.

Learning experiences in graduate classes can be enhanced by providing support for shared control in the learning process. Innovative techniques such as "Mix and Weight" offer promise as a way of integrating ideas such as responsibility and choice within the tenets of self-direction. We believe that this project helps define the nature of an adult education classroom, offers concrete suggestions for conducting future intervention-oriented projects and helps build the growing literature on research-to-practice.

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EVALUATING AN AGRICULTURAL INNOVATION: IMPLICATIONS FOR EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMMING

Robert N. King
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ABSTRACT

This study described and assessed the diffusion and adoption process of the pre-sidedress nitrogen test (PSNT) as a result of an educational program. Researchers used focus groups to interview both adopters and non-adopters of the PSNT to identify variables and factors that facilitated or hindered its adoption and that should be included in future educational programs involving nitrogen testing innovations. The adoption process was an ill-structured problem and no unique decision making process could be identified for solving the adoption decision. In addition, economic and farm management information was required to facilitate the adoption decision and was absent during the original educational program. The researchers concluded that another educational program was required to provide information that would educate potential adopters to create their own decision making processes. A more holistic and multi-disciplinary approach is necessary to design and develop educational programs that facilitate the adoption decision concerning agricultural innovations.

INTRODUCTION

The diffusion and adoption of an innovation involves a process of "matching" its technical possibi-lities with the needs of potential adopters (Rosenberg, 1972). In addition, potential adopters may require an affiliation with at least three different communication networks to become aware of, to gain information, and learn about agricultural innovations: a social communication network, a clique, and a personal communication network (Rogers & Kincaid, 1981). Supply and demand considerations, explained by expected profits from an innovation, also play an integral role in determining diffusion and adoption rates of innovations (Mansfield, 1979; Rosenberg, 1972). Rogers (1983) developed a conceptual model to describe and assess the diffusion and adoption of an innovation using five variables: relative advantage; compatibility; complexity; trialability; and observability. Within each of these variables are economic factors which indicate an innovation's likelihood of adoption. An innovation's success may be judged by its ability to displace older techniques if it is superior to them.

Whereas economists often stress the demand side of innovations, scientists and engineers advocate the supply side of innovations (Rosenberg, 1972; Mansfield, 1979). One-sided approaches, such as "demand pull" or "science push" theories of innovations, are not likely to succeed. Just as an engineer who neglects the potential market or the costs of using an innovation will likely fail (Freeman, 1982), so may the educator fail who neglects both sides when assessing and evaluating an educational program.

Farming involves a multitude of different production possibilities that do not promote well-structured solutions (Lanyon, 1992). Ill-structured domains or subject matter areas are not conducive to learning skills that follow explicit steps or apply some general skill repeatedly (Haroutunian-Gordon, 1988). A well-structured domain requires an understanding and manipu-lation of information to obtain a unique solution. "Calculating the volume of a room, given length, breadth, and height, would constitute a well-structured problem; determining the most functional arrangement of the furniture in the room would be an ill-structur- l one" (Ward, Carlson, & Woisetschlager, 1983, p. 6).

In assessing the needs and interests of adults, Mezirow (1991) suggested that adults are not fully aware of their best interests. Potential adopters may not be aware of a technological innovation or may not possess the knowledge and skills to use the innovation. Mezirow also contended that real interests are those formed from perfect knowledge which may be hidden by physical, ideolo-gical, or psychological distortion, coercion, or other assumptions. Educators can develop mean-ingful

programs only when learners express their real interests and needs which may reside in concealed assumptions or premises. Knowles' (1978) definition of an educational need helps explain this discrepancy: "It is the gap between his *(learner's)* present level of competencies and a higher level required for effective performance as defined by himself, his organization, or his society" (p. 85).

The pre-sidedress nitrogen test (PSNT) is an innovation exhibiting many characteristics just described. The PSNT, developed for use in corn fields by scientists interested in manure and nutrient management and concerned about environmental pollution, indicates the level of nitrate nitrogen present in soil. It enables a farmer to determine, with some degree of certainty, the amount of nitrogen fertilizer required to produce a targeted yield of corn. The PSNT increases the chances of growing a good crop and encourages efficient use of nitrogen fertilizers to reduce nitrogen leaching into ground water (Shortle et al., 1993).

Adopters can learn new ways to modify and make the innovation more efficient, thereby creating new knowledge and skills (Rosenberg, 1972). But generating knowledge is not always synony-mous with diffusing and adopting knowledge. The failure to recognize and address the psycho social component of technology adoption as part of the educational process reveals that transfer of technology from laboratory to field remains a significant challenge for extension (Barao, 1992).

Educators can identify those factors and concepts involved in "matching" an innovation's technical possibilities to the needs of potential adopters. Assessment and evaluation methods may be used that do not reveal information about the prerequisites and instruction (skill mastery, knowl-edge) required to use an innovation (Gagne, Briggs, & Wager, 1992). Extension programs that have relied on public and private funding have been justified on the basis of assessing accomplishments of improved social or economic conditions that the program was assumed to have produced or helped to produce. Therefore, educators need to consider additional assess-ment and evaluation criteria and methods to gain a more holistic perspective for describing and identifying factors, variables, and concepts that facilitate the diffusion and adoption of an agricultural innovation.

PURPOSE AND OBJECTIVES

The main purpose of this study was to describe and assess the diffusion and adoption process of the pre-sidedress nitrogen test (PSNT) using qualitative research methods. Objectives of the study were to: (1) identify parameters, factors, and variables of an agricultural innovation; (2) explore technology transfer methods used to diffuse the innovation (networks and delivery mechanisms); and (3) identify and explain key variables for designing, developing, and implementing educational programs for current and future nitrogen testing innovations.

METHODOLOGY

Twenty-six farmers, adopters and non-adopters of the PSNT, were surveyed using the focus group interview technique. This method can provide for the identification of phenomenological meanings attached to norms, values, attitudes, and behavior patterns of the population. For vague issues and ill-defined populations across time, focus groups can provide an understanding of how participants define issues (Zeller, 1993). This technique is appropriate, when working with an ill-defined population and ill-structured problem (Krueger, 1994; Zeller, 1993).

The researchers designed and developed an interview protocol which was reviewed by faculty members in the Departments of Agronomy, Agricultural Economics and Rural Sociology, and Agricultural and Extension Education at The Pennsylvania State University. Farmers learned about the PSNT from three different technology transfer sources: Penn State Cooperative Exten-sion (PSCE); the Pennsylvania Crop Management Association (CMA); and a private agronomic consultant (AC). For this reason, three different focus groups were conducted using the technology transfer sources as a controlling variable.

Results of the three focus groups were transcribed and analyzed using HyperQual™. This computer based analysis used an approach similar to factor analysis for organizing and identifying qualitative data by theory, concepts, parameters, variables, attributes, commonality, ideals, and other modeling considerations (Padilla, 1991).

FINDINGS

All participants except three farmers in the second (AC) group were full-time dairy farmers who had used the PSNT results. The first focus group was conducted with seven farmers aged 38-51 who had at least 17 years of experience and were members of the Pennsylvania Crop Manage-ment Association (CMA). The second group was comprised of 12 farmers aged 26-55 who had at least seven years of farming experience and utilized the services of a private agronomic consultant (AC). The third group consisted of seven farmers aged 30-45 who had farmed at least ten years and used Penn State University Cooperative Extension (PSCE).

The variables identified in Rogers' (1983) model were used as the framework for the protocol of the focus groups. However, a new conceptual model, developed through data analysis (Figure 1), reflects an ill-structured problem. The findings, presented in the context of this model, reveal seven variables: nitrogen usage, opportunity costs, production practices, risk, communications, observability, and technical efficiency.

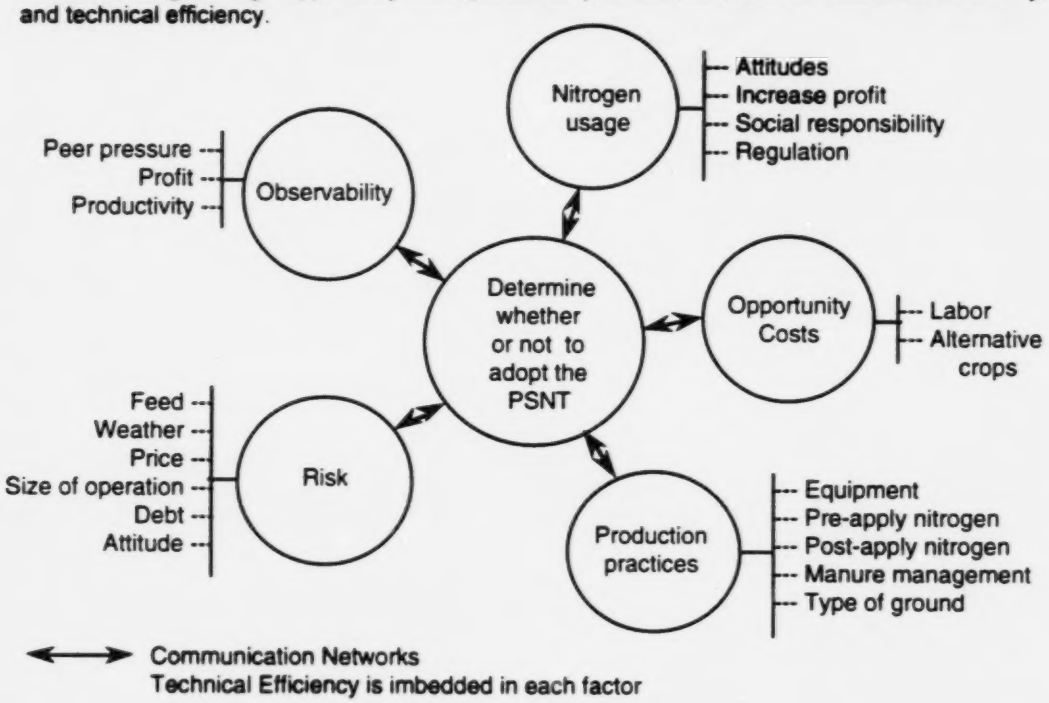

Figure 1. Ill Structured Decision Making Model

Nitrogen Use: Nitrogen is extremely important for growing a good corn crop and, therefore, farmers were reluctant to cut back on using it. Many farmers thought changes in nitrogen usage would adversely impact their crops. Although saving money would be a strong motivation for using the PSNT, reducing nitrogen and profit were not the only reasons for using it. Farmers were concerned about the environment and, in order to be environmental stewards, sought information about the PSNT. Many farmers perceived manure to have very little nutrient value; however, some farmers indicated manure was a large and inexpensive source of nitrogen.

Opportunity Costs: The PSNT was described as labor intensive; labor was scarce or unavailable because it was needed for hay cutting and baling. Farmers relied on the technology transfer agents to perform the PSNT for them on a regular basis. Many farmers believed the net benefits from using the PSNT were less than from their hay crop. However, many farmers did not possess the financial records to justify these perceptions.

Production Practices: Farmers indicated that the PSNT worked best when used on corn fields that had manure applied to them. Several farmers reported that pre-applying nitrogen was easier and less time consuming and influenced other production and management decisions. The nature and scope of these decisions depended on the farmer, soil type, and type of operation. Adapting production practices and equipment was easy; however, some PSNT users had problems using or adapting equipment. All farmers felt they lacked timely information about how to adapt equipment.

Risk: Farmers were interested in learning how the PSNT mitigated production risk and achieved their objectives. Many farmers insisted the only way to mitigate risk was to use more nitrogen. However, several farmers insisted that using more nitrogen did not mitigate risk. Weather was another risk that mitigated or exacerbated the chances of growing a good crop. When faced with uncertainty, farmers choose the alternative with the lowest perceived risk. Older farmers used the PSNT to reduce uncertainty about the amount of nitrogen available to corn while younger farmers used it to increase profits. A large operation mitigated risk for some farmers while increased it for others; attitudes toward risk varied for individual farmers.

Communications: Every farmer relied on technology transfer agents for information and awareness of nutrient management innovations. Most information and education about the PSNT came from publications and meetings, followed up by one-on-one interactions with the agents. Subsequently, farmers sought information from peers about the credibility and success of the PSNT to save money or displace other technologies. Farmers did not learn about the innovation through other farmers; rather they gathered information about its success.

Observability: Success of the PSNT was based on performance and color of the corn crop; farmers expected to see results. Older farmers indicated a good looking crop did not ensure a good yield; they used periodic weight measurements. For some farmers, peer pressure necessitated having the best looking corn crop.

Technical Efficiency: Farmers indicated that the PSNT did what it was intended to do when used correctly. However, credibility problems resulted when test guidelines and parameters were violated.

CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Initially, Rogers' (1983) model provided the theoretical framework for designing and developing the evaluation of this agricultural innovation. After gathering data, it became clear that Rogers' model was a general, uncomplicated, and naive presentation of a complex and ill-structured situation. Rather than the five variables from the Roger's model (1983), a new conceptual model (Figure 1) was derived from the evaluation process with seven variables and their factors that possessed many dimensions of divergence in the decision-making process of farmers. For example, one farmer thought the PSNT could reduce risk, while another farmer perceived it would increase risk. For instance, the PSNT mitigated risk except during times of scarce labor or poor weather. When another variable or factor entered into the adoption decision-making process, some farmers vacillated and lacked information to make an informed decision.

Typically, a farmers' decision-making process was dependent upon personal experiences, willingness to bear risk, and the type and size of their farming operation. The decision making model (Figure 1) represents an ill-structured problem for which there is no unique process for providing a solution to a farmer's decision to adopt or not adopt an innovation. This is an ill-structured problem because of the breadth, the complexity, and the irregularities of the adoption decision. The relationships among

and between these variables are not conducive to designing and developing an instructional solution that will provide a unique process for the adoption decision. The instructional solution is to provide this information in the form of facts and concepts that are necessary for an individual to customize their own adoption decision making process.

This research project, funded by the USDA Cooperative States Research Service, was a summa-tive evaluation of an educational program designed and implemented by extension specialists. In addition to these personnel, a multi-disciplinary research team was assembled, including a professionally trained educator and a graduate student with formal education and work experience in economics and farm management, to perform this evaluation. During successive focus groups, it became evident that farmers had not been fully informed of the economic costs and benefits they could be derived from utilizing the PSNT; these are the very factors indicative of an innovation's likelihood of adoption. Farmers lacked the knowledge and skills relative to the economic considerations and anticipated profits of the PSNT for making informed decisions about adopting the innovation. Although many agronomic aspects of the innovation were presented, farm management skills and knowledge (facts and concepts) were not included in the educational programs to enable farmers to make adoption decisions. For these programs to have been more effective, economic information involved in the process of the adoption decision should have been included.

In addition, a more holistic and multi-disciplinary approach to and understanding of the decision-making process may have improved the outcome of this educational program. For example, if a needs assessment and task analysis included assessment of the technical and farm management skills necessary for using the PSNT, farmers' learning discrepancies could have been accounted for in the educational program. Lacking this consideration, many farmers used and assessed the innovation inappropriately which adversely impacted the credibility and reliability of the PSNT. An accurately assessed and competently designed educational program can correct for insufficient and inappropriate knowledge and empower farmers with the necessary skills and knowledge to adopt an innovation.

Bennett's (1982) Reflective Appraisal of Programs (RAP) has been used extensively to measure perceptions, or affective domains, of program participants to identify the success of extension programs. Mastery cannot be identified when assessing an attitude; it is simply an inference of a tendency to use or not use something (Gagne, Briggs, & Wager, 1992). Using Rogers' theoretical model as a framework or template for evaluating this educational program provided a richer and more robust analysis through criterion referenced measures. RAP would not have revealed prerequisites or basic instructional needs (e.g. mastery of skills, knowledge) that farmers needed to use the PSNT appropriately. If this evaluation had only measured attitudinal, or affective criteria, these results would not have been discovered.

Based on these focus groups, educators may wish to consider additional assessment and evaluation criteria and methods to gain a more holistic perspective for creating educational programs that facilitate the diffusion and adoption of agricultural innovations. As a direct result of this study, educational materials are being produced to complement further innovations in nitrogen testing. Educational program modules include: farm and risk management; nitrogen management; soil sampling techniques; and procedures for nitrogen testing. These modules will be designed, developed, implemented, and evaluated using two delivery methods: workshops (group-paced); and home correspondence (self-paced).

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A STUDY OF CONTROL IN SELF-DIRECTED LEARNING

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ABSTRACT

This paper reports on an exploratory study of control in self-directed learning. The notion of control is central to self-directed learning and often a primary goal of such programs is to develop in the students control not only over their studies but also over other aspects of their lives. The participants in this study were students enrolled in an adult basic education upgrading course at a college in Northern Alberta, Canada. A sample of students were interviewed on a regular basis for the duration of the program with a view to exploring their sense of control and their reaction to self-directed learning.

From an analysis of the interview transcripts, a number of themes emerged which indicated a growth in the student's sense of control, a shift away from a pragmatic view of education on the part of some students, the value attached to peer support and the importance of communication in the self-directed process. The findings from the interviews are interpreted in light of a model of the construct of control in the educational context suggested by Garrison (1993). As a result of the study, a number of changes were implemented in the upgrading program which were primarily designed to enhance communication.

INTRODUCTION

The majority of students who enroll in adult basic education programs have at some stage experienced problems in their previous formal educational settings. For many students, these educational problems have their roots in a lack of control of personal circumstances which eventually result in a premature withdrawal from school. On leaving school these students experience a further lack of control over their lives, being in the main limited to jobs at the margin of the workforce earning minimum wage, or physically demanding high risk occupations which are usually of short duration and which are generally not sustainable over a working lifetime. Even if employment can be maintained there is for many a distinct sense of inadequacy in not measuring up to others who have completed high school. The combination of poor jobs, lack of money, frustration and low self-esteem will often lead dropouts to enroll in basic education programs in the hope of obtaining an education which in turn will give them a degree of control over their lives.

The intent of many adult basic education programs is to provide a self-directed learning experience for adults who have previously been unsuccessful in formal educational settings. Within these programs the concept of control is now becoming seen as a fundamental aspect and in many such programs a primary goal is for the students to extend the control that they develop in their learning into all aspects of their lives.

Despite the general acceptance of the importance of the concept of control to self-directed learning there has been a degree of confusion about the construct. In clarifying the concept Garrison (1993) defines it as the opportunity and ability to influence educational decisions and views it as a collaborative process between the teacher/facilitator and learner while considering the demands of content, and proposes a dynamic model of the educational transaction in which control is the central feature (figure 1). This model is a refinement of one initially proposed by Garrison and Baynton (1987) which proposed three control factors as seen from the learners perspective; independence, support and proficiency. The revised model reconceptualizes self-direction as a collaborative, dynamic process with the factor identified as support relabelled as resources to reflect teacher support (something that is given) and learner assistance (something that is received), and the factor independence relabelled as interdependence to reflect teacher responsibilities (norms) as well as learner choice (freedom). It is hypothesized that developing true control(self-directedness) in an

educational setting requires a dynamic balance among resources, interdependence and proficiency. This paper describes an exploratory study of the concept of control and its role in self-directed learning for adults enrolled in a basic education upgrading program.

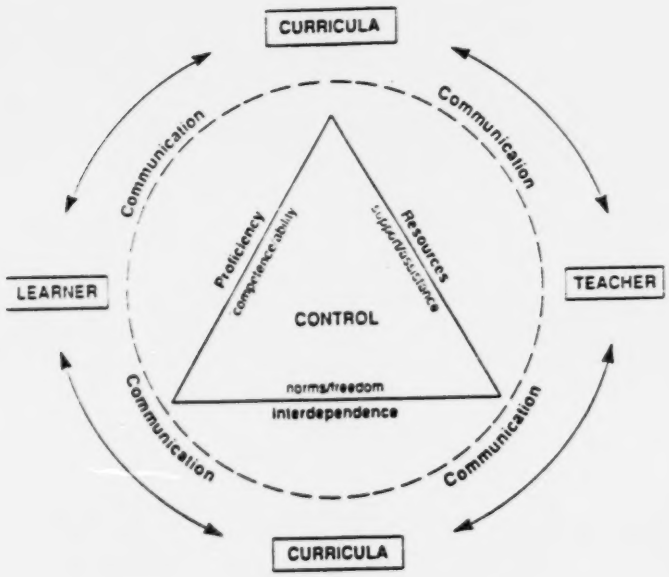

Figure 1.

METHODOLOGY

SETTING

The setting for the study was Lakeland College in Northern Alberta, Canada. The upgrading program at the College is designed for students who wish to obtain a grade twelve equivalency diploma. The upgrading program is a self-directed learning experience. The students are placed in the program based on standardized adult tests, diagnostic tests in class and interviews. Once in class, the appropriate grade levels are determined and students decide what courses they wish or need to complete in a semester that will assist in accomplishing their career goals. The program is designed so that learners work on their own with instructors acting as tutors or group leaders as required. Approximately 30 students are enrolled in the program at any one time with two full-time instructors.

SAMPLE

Fifteen of the students enrolled in the upgrading program agreed to be interviewed on a regular basis throughout the program. From this pool six were selected so as to provide a cross-section of the students enrolled in the program.

INTERVIEWS

A interview schedule was designed which primarily consisted of open-ended questions which elicited open-ended responses by the students. The students were each interviewed on a bi-monthly basis

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for the duration of the program and each interview was tape-recorded with the permission of the students. Following each interview the tape-recordings were transcribed. The transcripts were analyzed to identify chunks of meaning (Marshall, 1981) and were subsequently categorized to discern themes.

RESULTS

A number of themes emerged from the analysis of the data chunks. Virtually all the interviewees experienced a lack of control in earlier parts of their lives which led to them leaving school:

J. "I was involved in drugs and alcohol at an early stage and this did not help me stay in school."

G. "I thought to myself do I need this shit, I am just as smart as the other guy so what am I doing here. I started partying and drinking. I went to school drunk and then quit school in grade 10."

L. "My experience in high school was that I just partied too much."

Most of the interviewees received no support for education from their home environment:

J. " My parents didn't deal with my drinking at all, in fact they do not confront any issue that is not good."
" Work was valued more than education by my dad."

L. " None of my brothers or sisters had completed any more than grade 10 so I figured why stay in school."

Generally the decision to return to education was pragmatic rather than made from the standpoint of self-realization or growth:

G. " I could get another job I think, but I didn't like the hours and the work itself so I decided to see what kind of money the government and student finance would give me."

L. "I couldn't get a job in Ontario so I decided to move in with my sister. I looked for work but nothing was available so I found out about coming to college and the counsellor told me that I could get money for attending school."

The issue of support is paramount in self-directed learning programs. The importance of external support through grants etc. was seen to be important and was often a major if not the only factor in the decision to return to school:

C. "A sponsoring agency had a lot to do with my entering the program, but I would have come on my own anyway."

The importance of peer support emerged strongly as an important element in the internal support system:

B. " I have always been good working on my own, but now I have friends that can help me with my learning."

C. " I like the other students and their feedback in the class, I wouldn't want to do this without the class."

While the intent of the program is self-directed learning the majority of the learners recognized the need for guidelines, which in the main consisted of time limits imposed by external funding agencies:

M. " I like the fact that I have to complete three courses in a semester. I work better with some guidelines."

B. " I would like some guidelines set so I don't start to slack off."

Most of the students interviewed during the study experienced a growth in their sense of control, not only in their studies but often in other aspects of their lives:

J. "I think I understand self-directedness. It enables you to deal with yourself so that you can deal with academic problems. It allows you to grow as a person. It does teach you self-control because it is a challenge."

M. "I am now helping my daughter with her homework and a year and a half ago I couldn't do that. I feel control of my learning is very important because it flows in to control of your life."

While the reasons for students entering the program were mainly pragmatic e.g job related, there was a realization, by some students as the course progressed, that education brings an emancipation to their lives and increased ambitions:

J. "I want an education so that I can have freedom to spend time with a family."

M. "The goal I have set for myself is to complete grade 12 and graduate because I have been accepted into university for next Fall if I can keep my grade point average at 3.5."

It was apparent during the course of the study that the interviews themselves often helped the students to focus on what they were doing in the program:

J. "I wish we could do more of this discussing on a one to one basis I really feel this helps me focus on what I am doing or not doing."

C. "I like coming to the interviews because I get to tell you exactly how I feel about things. In the classroom I couldn't do that. I guess too I am more focussed on my work after we talk, it is helpful and I get to air my frustrations."

DISCUSSION

For the students who were interviewed in this study there was clearly a growth in their sense of control during the program. This was apparent from their responses as they began to experience an unaccustomed degree of success in their studies, but also, according to some of the students, the increased control extended to their lives outside the classroom. Garrison (1983) has suggested that the development of control in a self-directed learning program requires a dynamic balance between resources (support/assistance), interdependence (norms/freedom) and proficiency (competence/ability) in a context of curricula and communication. The data gathered from the interviews can certainly be interpreted in this light.

The students entering the program were unfamiliar with the concept of independent study and so initially required and accepted the strong support offered by the facilitator, however as the program progressed the dependency diminished and a strong sense of independence emerged as their proficiency increased. This, however, did not mean that the students no longer required a support system, since it was clear from their responses that as the program progressed the support of their peers became an increasingly important factor. In addition it was clear that the students appreciated that the lack of freedom associated with external imposed deadlines was compensated for by increased efficiency. Paradoxically, by giving up independence for guidance and support (by accepting sponsorship) the student gained control in regards to the outcomes of the educational experience.

Self-direction in an educational setting just does not occur spontaneously for the majority of learners, a process is necessary to help the learner understand self-direction. Fundamental to this process is the role of communication which according to Garrison (1983), is an essential ingredient in the development of control. While it is freely acknowledged that communication is a key factor in any educational transaction it is clear that for students who enrol in an adult upgrading program it is paramount. On reflection it was clear that the regular interviews with the students, which required them to focus on the issues of control and self-direction, became a facilitating process in itself. In addition these sessions often enabled the students to discuss personal problems with their teacher. Many students who enter the program have a legacy of emotional problems which have in part been responsible for their lack of success and can continue to interfere with their educational plans. It is essential based on the experience of working with the students in this study that the learner and the facilitator develop a reciprocal arrangement where each can express themselves freely. It is this communication that holds the learning process together. A collaborative, supportive facilitator, a responsive curriculum and an open communication system will lead to learner control. This can be

seen as being a six-step process that moves the learner from being insecure to becoming self-directed.

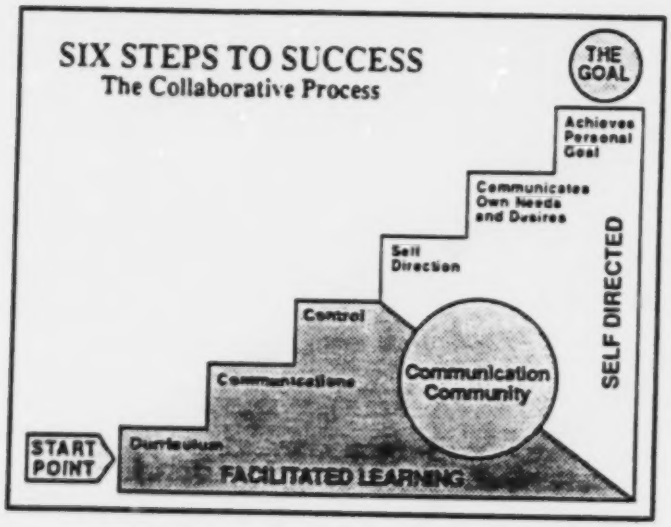

Figure 2.

In this model, a curriculum that is flexible and responds to the student's needs is the foundation. The objectives are established by the instructors who are aware of adult learner characteristics. The objectives will be geared to suit individual levels. A curriculum in a self-directed program must be designed to accommodate a variety of interest and intellectual levels. A curriculum developed in a module format can accomplish this purpose. In this way the learner can proceed to master concepts at his/her own pace. The facilitator supplies additional help if necessary and can direct the student to find supplementary resources as required. This leads to a second element of facilitated learning, a strong communication system. In order for learners to develop confidence in themselves, needs and goals must be communicated to a facilitator. In turn an instructor who listens and offers assistance when needed, will help to increase confidence. Communication between the learner and facilitator is necessary to aid with the education process, but peer support also plays a crucial role in developing self-esteem. As the communication system expands and the learner feels confident self-direction begins and control is developed. As control is developed the student develops an awareness of his or her own values and ultimately achieves personal goals.

As a result of the information and experience gained in the study a number of changes have been implemented, the intent of which is to improve communication at all stages in the upgrading program:

a) Interviews are now held with the students at the middle and at the end of each semester to discuss progress and provide the student with an opportunity to air academic or personal issues of concern to them.
b) The faculty have implemented an open-door policy where at any time a student can meet with them and discuss an issue in confidence.
c) The students are now provided with greater access to trained counsellors.

d) Resource personnel from the local community are invited to the college to give presentations and interact with the students.

e) A lifeskills course is provided for interested students.

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THE PARADOX OF LINKING THEORY TO PRACTICE

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Dr. Janette K. Newhouse

ABSTRACT

The Commonwealth of Virginia, through the administrations of three governors, has moved steadily to establish an endorsement for adult education teachers. As the endorsement became a reality, Radford University faculty examined ways to implement a meaningful response. This opportunity was addressed in the form of a Master's Degree, based on the principles of adult education and offered to professionals from across Virginia. Ultimately 27 adult educators entered the cohort-based graduate program seeking a degree congruent with their professional responsibilities. Thus, the faculty faced the challenge of creating a curriculum linking the theory and the practice of adult education.

This paper explores the paradox between theory and practice in adult education that evolved during the creation of this degree program. The theoretical foundation of the curriculum reflects salient themes that permeate the adult education literature and is particularly reflective of Stephen Brookfield's text, Understanding and Facilitating Adult Learning.

The paper will address the unexpected incongruence that emerged as faculty endeavored to practice adult education principles in the design and implementation of this graduate degree program. Recommendations will be offered to enhance the linkage of theory and practice in subsequent cohorts.

INTRODUCTION

Radford University, a comprehensive institution of about 9,500 students in the Blue Ridge Mountains of Southwest Virginia, has recently completed an innovative cohort-based Master's degree program. In this paper, cohort-based refers to a group of students enrolled in the same courses taught in an intensive format not congruent with the university's calendar and closed to other graduate students. In June of 1994, 24 adult educators completed this M.S. Degrees in Education with an emphasis in Adult Education/Literacy. This was almost exactly two years after 27 students were accepted into the graduate program that has been described by students as, "A program of exceptional integrity," "Awesome," and "Satisfying and rewarding." Although this exemplary educational effort, which was supported in part by a $30,000 grant from the Virginia Literacy Foundation, was considered an overwhelming success, it was not without ambiguity, incongruity, and frustration. The most pervasive issue that this paper addresses is the difficulty of modeling andragological principles (Knowles, 1980, 1984) in an institutional setting that embraces a pedagological philosophy. The authors will discuss some of the dilemmas that evolved during the two-year M.S. program and the implications of these dilemmas for future efforts.

Specific areas where the interface between theory and practice became an issue include: (1) how to give students responsibility for learning without fostering unrealistic patterns of assessment; (2) how to help students deal with the challenges of being self-directed; (3) how to foster a genuine respect for empirical research among practitioners who have a pragmatic orientation; (4) how to deal with the undesirable effects of "cohort incest," that is, the familiarity and intimacy that results from common group experiences over an extended time period; and (5) how to accommodate the competing agendas of students, faculty, and the university within the context of an intensive-course format.

The reader must understand that these concerns are not mutually exclusive of one another; each is inextricably interrelated. In treating these extremely complex and intertwined concerns separately

some oversimplification is necessary. This should not be allowed to trivialize the intricacies of the program.

ISSUE 1: HOW TO GIVE STUDENTS RESPONSIBILITY FOR LEARNING WITHOUT FOSTERING UNREALISTIC PATTERNS OF ASSESSMENT

Our experiences suggest that while participatory evaluation is a viable concept, it is not always an effective assessment tool. In the process of determining and assigning grades, an intense competition developed among cohort members resulting in both an increased quality of work and an "overconcern" for grades. This "overconcern" was manifested in an unwillingness by some students to accept less than a grade of "A" when, in fact, a lower grade was indicated.

A related complication was that cohort members refused to be critical of peers when evaluating them. Students reported that they knew each other too well to objectively evaluate. They also suggested that other students might reciprocate if negatively assessed. In support of this behavior, Brookfield (1986) alludes to the complexity of peer or participatory evaluation.

Self-evaluation was another area of assessment where students had difficulty in making honest and objective judgments. When students were asked to evaluate their own efforts, grades tended to be inflated. This grade inflation became more acute as students progressed through the program resulting in erosion of grading standards.

ISSUE 2: HOW TO HELP STUDENTS DEAL WITH THE CHALLENGES OF BEING SELF-DIRECTED

In the second course, Foundations of Adult Education, students were introduced to learning contracts as a strategy to exemplify self-directed learning. Most students welcomed the opportunity to be self-directed, however, several indicated a clear need for explicit direction and demonstrated a reticence to take control. Developing a learning contract required each student to establish learning objectives, to designate learning resources and strategies, to cite evidence of accomplishment of objectives, and to indicate criteria for validating evidence. The first two categories were relatively easy for students to develop, but most found coming up with a way to measure and document what was learned to be a daunting task. As a result of their frustration, several students requested that the professor develop a final test or just assign a paper in order to relieve the confusion and uncertainty.

The long-term consequences of this activity proved interesting. One student said in an interview following graduation, "As exasperating as the formulation of the learning contract was, it was the single most valuable learning experience of the entire degree program." An interesting result of this process was that students produced work well beyond the quality expected. Further, some students enjoyed the new found freedom to manage their own learning to such an extent that they became resentful of the more pedagogical teaching strategies offered by faculty in some subsequent courses.

In essence, this was a most profound issue because it resulted in a kind of "painful learning' that Brookfield (1986) might call "praxis." For faculty and students, the process of developing the learning contract resulted in questioning long-held views of learning, how learning goals are established, and why evaluation is necessary.

ISSUE 3: HOW TO FOSTER A GENUINE RESPECT FOR EMPIRICAL RESEARCH AMONG PRACTITIONERS WHO HAVE A PRAGMATIC ORIENTATION

All of the students accepted into the cohort were employed as practitioners in the literacy arena either as teachers or administrators. Few students had previous course work in adult education, however, most were active in professional organizations and have participated in educational opportunities focusing on the practice of adult education. Because all cohort members were practitioners with

limited professional preparation, most knew little about empirical research and tended to be practice-oriented.

At times faculty and students seemed to have competing agendas. Faculty were concerned with maintaining high standards in all areas of the Master's program. Demonstrated understanding and application of empirical research was an integral measure of program integrity and therefore, an important faculty emphasis. On the other hand, some students saw the relevance of the graduate program only as it related to their jobs. Therefore, a challenge for faculty was to help students understand both the role that research plays in graduate education and how the application of empirical research interfaces with their work as adult educators.

As the program evolved faculty were able to see indications that cohort members were beginning to appreciate and use research. Students' conversations were sprinkled with references to leading thinkers in the field and research findings were effectively integrated into presentations and papers.

A specific example of how familiarity with research changed behavior can be seen in student reactions to Brookfield's Understanding and Facilitating Adult Learning (1986). This book was the text in the initial course and students complained that reading it was akin to studying a foreign language. It was quite gratifying at the end of the M.S. program to hear students discuss concepts such as transactional dialogues and contextuality of learning that were introduced in the previously maligned text.

The culminating activity necessary to exit the M.S. program was participation in a research symposium designed by the students. The symposium presentations were research-based and reflected a high level of integration of research and practice.

ISSUE 4: HOW TO DEAL WITH THE UNDESIRABLE EFFECTS OF "COHORT INCEST"

The authors have defined "cohort incest" as the undesirable effects of the familiarity and intimacy that result from common group experiences over an extended time period. The members of this cohort spent many hours together studying, traveling, eating, socializing, lodging in the same motels, and collaborating on group assignments.

As mentioned earlier, major concerns resulted from students moving through the program as a group. These include their loss of objectivity in evaluating both self and others, the formation of cliques that tended to exclude some class members and impinge on the privacy of others, lack of exposure to the ideas of people outside of the cohort, and the increased likelihood of gossip and pettiness that occurs more often when people know one another well.

As with the lack of objectivity in assigning grades discussed under issue one, the formation of cliques seems to be exacerbated by the cohort model. The cliques can provide a safe environment for the exchange of ideas, thereby promoting intellectual growth or they can serve to shut others out of the group. Oftentimes during class breaks, small groups of students could be observed engaging in both behaviors.

For many cohort members the ongoing nature of the group-based approach resulted in the formation of a community of learners that typically evolves in doctoral programs. Some of the most meaningful advantages of this community of learners were formation of friendships, the availability of emotional support from people who shared similar academic experiences, and ready access to a broader professional community.

ISSUE 5: HOW TO ACCOMMODATE THE COMPETING AGENDAS OF STUDENTS, FACULTY, AND THE UNIVERSITY WITHIN THE CONTEXT OF AN INTENSIVE-COURSE FORMAT

It quickly became apparent that the programmatic goal of creating a degree that fit within an andragological model faced serious challenges. The adult students were struggling to balance their already busy professional and personal lives with the new demands of the M.S. program. The faculty, trained within the confines of pedagogy, was challenged by students' understanding of adult education. The university with conventional scheduling, deadlines, staffing, and funding needed to respond to the requirements of non-traditional graduate students. Therefore, the stage was set for conflict and potential loss of credibility on all sides.

In a attempt to create a successful program, various tactics were tried. A committee of students met regularly with faculty and administrators to discuss concerns, a form was developed for individuals to address specific questions to faculty, class time was designated to allow discussion of issues, and finally a course on group dynamics was developed. These tactics met with varying levels of success as the group evolved over two years.

Some areas of concern related to the intensive-course format remained. Faculty continued to struggle with the institution's schedule as well as their concern with content coverage, course requirements, and measures of performance. Students demanded to know the next semester's course meeting times and requirements, while also wanting the course to be tailored to their specific needs. The institution was faced with the inevitable conflict between a prescribed structure and an innovative approach. Other areas related to the competing agendas were advising problems, the lack of sufficient time to internalize information in a compressed time schedule, the geographic separation of students from computer and library resources, time conflicts with work and family needs, and inclement weather.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Explore ways to make evaluation less threatening and more meaningful.

2. Involve graduates of the program in subsequent cohorts as instructors, mentors, advisors, resource persons, field placement supervisors and advocates.

3. Implement a more refined procedure to allow the retention of only those students who demonstrate the ability to successfully complete a graduate degree.

4. Create awareness early in the program that andragogy and graduate education are not always compatible.

5. Help faculty understand the implication of andragogy within the cohort model.

6. Promote understanding of the institutional parameters that exist, thereby helping students understand that some aspects of the educational experience are non-negotiable.

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INTERNATIONALIZING EXTENSION: A DELPHI STUDY

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ABSTRACT

Extension systems across the country are being challenged to integrate international perspectives into programs and assist staff and clientele in developing global competency. For the past decade, national Extension leaders have encouraged state Extension systems to internationalize. Few studies have been conducted related to internationalization of the Extension component of the land grant university system. The purpose of the study was to identify the characteristics that will describe an internationalized state extension system.

The study used a three-round, modified Delphi technique to explore and describe the characteristics of an internationalized state extension system. By consensus, the Delphi Panel identified 38 characteristics of an internationalized state Extension system. Five critical elements were identified: (1) Clientele develop a fundamental understanding of global and national interdependence. (2) Extension educational programs within the U.S. stress the impact of international economic forces on agricultural markets. (3) Extension educators incorporate international perspectives into on-going activities. (4) Extension faculty/agents recognize the relationship between basic international issues and the Extension mission. (5) Personnel evaluation systems recognize international efforts. The absence of any one of these critical elements would mean that the extension system could not be considered to be internationalized.

INTRODUCTION

Extension systems across the country have been challenged to integrate international perspectives into programs and assist staff and clientele in developing global competency. For the past decade, national Extension leaders have encouraged state Extension systems to internationalize. Few studies have been conducted related to internationalization of the Extension component of the land-grant university system. None define internationalizing in terms of objectively verifiable indicators of success. A need to examine and improve the understanding of internationalizing of a state university Extension system became apparent through a review of literature.

Poston and O'Rourke (1991) studied the attitudes of Cooperative Extension Service directors and administrators toward internationalization. The results indicated that the degree to which a global perspective was being incorporated into the Cooperative Extension Service was quite small. Eighty percent of the directors indicated their state had achieved either a low level or had not achieved any level of globalization.

Henson, Noel, Gillard-Byers and Ingle (1990) stated internationalization was frequently viewed in general, rather amorphus terms that were difficult for some to understand and comprehend. The researchers indicated strategic approaches to total university internationalization have been addressed infrequently and there appeared to be little research on internationalization per se. Arum and Van De Water (1992) supported this view. America 2000 targeted the need for an educated citizenry who have the knowledge and skills to compete in a global economy (U.S. Department of Education, 1991). Trends and events indicate the interdependence of the world community (Rahman & Kopp, 1992; Ping, 1990; Somersan, 1992; Firebaugh, 1990). To assist in the process of internationalizing Extension, a clearer understanding was needed of what it meant to internationalize and how an organization could measure its progress in becoming internationalized. If characteristics of an internationalized Extension system could be identified, then administrators might focus available resources to create needed changes.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

To identify the characteristics that will describe an internationalized state Extension system.

METHODOLOGY

The study used a three-round, modified Delphi technique to explore and describe the characteristics of an internationalized state extension system. Delphi, a group process, utilized individual written responses to three researcher developed instruments as opposed to bringing individuals together for oral discussion. The process was further characterized by multiple iterations or feedback designed to accomplish convergence of opinion. The Delphi Panel members were purposefully selected following a nomination process. A total of 15 individuals, well known and respected for their contributions to Extension or land-grant colleges or universities in the area of internationalization, were identified. The Delphi Panel was asked to identify the degree to which they believed each item contributed to the internationalization of a state university Extension system.

INSTRUMENTATION AND DATA COLLECTION

The instrument developed for Round I contained 39 position statements derived from the literature and structured interviews with international experts. A seven point Likert-type scale was used with 0 indicating "no importance" and 6 indicating "critical importance". Face and content validity of the initial instrument were assured through the use of a content validity panel. Given the nature of the Delphi technique, additional types of validity and reliability estimates were not appropriate for the instrument. For Rounds II and III, instruments were developed based on responses to the preceding instrument. The instruments used in the second and third rounds contained items on which a predetermined level of consensus was not achieved during the previous round.

The Delphi instruments were mailed to the Delphi Panel using the regular U.S. mail or air mail to international locations. A variety of techniques were used to ensure maintenance of interest and participation in the study.

DATA ANALYSIS

Descriptive statistics were calculated for each round. The computer program SPSS was used for data analysis. For each round, items on which consensus was reached were identified. Consensus on an item was considered to have been reached when 80% of the ratings fell within two categories on a seven-point scale. Following Round III, statistics of central tendency and variability were calculated for all items on which consensus had been reached. The mean was used to describe the level of importance of the item to an internationalized state Extension system as determined by consensus of the Delphi Panel. For items where consensus was not reached, the frequency distribution of ratings was reported.

RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS

The results of the study represent the collective opinion of the experts participating in the Delphi Panel at a single point in time and cannot be construed to be representative of any other population or situation. Consensus is item specific and related to the knowledgeable individuals on the Delphi Panel. Fourteen of the 15 participants responded to each round, a 93% response rate.

Fifty-one items were considered during the three rounds of the Delphi. Thirty eight characteristics of an internationalized Extension system were identified by the Delphi Panel. The relative importance of these characteristics was also identified. Consensus was not achieved on 13 items after three rounds. Table I reports items where consensus was achieved and scale ratings fell within the categories of high importance (5) or critical importance (6). Comments made by the Delphi Panel during each round and reported anonymously provided additional information to describe the ratings and clarify issues. Three hundred and sixteen comments were received.

Table 1
Characteristics having High to Critical Importance to Extension Internationalization

Item	Mean	SD
Clientele develop a fundamental understanding of global and national interdependence.	5.85	.38
Extension educational programs within in the U.S. stress the impact of international economic forces on agricultural markets.	5.69	.86
Extension educators incorporate international perspectives into on-going educational activities.	5.54	.66
Extension faculty/agents recognize the relationships between basic international issues (e.g. knowledge of international agriculture, commitment to human development, significance of privatization)and the Extension mission.	5.54	.66
Personnel evaluation systems recognize international efforts.	5.50	.76
Key leaders participate in interdisciplinary international experiences.	5.36	.74
Sensitivity to diversity issues by Extension clientele is enhanced.	5.36	.63
Reward structure recognizes internationalization in its system of rewards. These include merit adjustments, tenure, promotion, and peer recognition.	5.31	.63
Financial support for internationalizing activities is available.	5.21	.43
Administrators clearly communicate support for internationalization.	5.14	.66
A person(s) is identified to provide leadership to internationalizing efforts.	5.14	.53
International experiences are provided for county agents who do not have faculty status.	5.08	.64
Policy and operating procedures facilitate international program efforts.	5.07	.62
The organization culture expects international activity.	5.07	.62
Extension educators assist communities in building a sense of responsibility for wise use of natural resources in the context of global trends.	5.07	.62
Faculty increase their expertise by interacting with faculty and scholars from other cultures.	5.07	.47
Human and physical resources are allocated to support the integration of international activities in the overall institution effort.	5.07	.47
Opportunities for international experiences are provided for administrators.	5.00	.55
The central mission of the Extension system includes a commitment to international education.	5.00	.55

Scale: 0 = No Importance; 1 = Slight Importance; 2 = Limited Importance; 3 = Moderate Importance; 4 = Moderately High Importance; 5 = High Importance; 6 = Critical Importance
Note: Round 1: N = 14; Round 2: N = 13; Round 3: N = 14

The results of the study help to clarify the meaning of internationalization and it is hoped will stimulate debate and perhaps action among those involved in the process of internationalizing land grant colleges, universities and Extension systems.

By consensus of the Delphi Panel, the most critical characteristic of a state university Extension service which had internationalized was the end product of clientele who had developed a fundamental understanding of global and national interdependence. Clientele education can be accomplished through programs within the U.S. that stress the impact of international economic forces on agricultural markets and by Extension educators incorporating international perspectives and the concept of global/local interdependence into on-going educational activities. An internationalized state university Extension system would also exhibit other important characteristics.

Five critical elements were identified by the Delphi Panel, each must be evident in an internationalized state university Extension system. The absence of any one of these critical elements would mean that the Extension system could not be considered to be internationalized.

- Clientele develop a fundamental understanding of global and national interdependence.
- Extension educational programs within the U.S. stress the impact of international economic forces on agricultural markets.
- Extension educators incorporate international perspectives into on-going activities.
- Extension faculty/agents recognize the relationship between basic international issues
- Personnel evaluation systems recognize international efforts

IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE

Studies in organizational change (Dalziel and Schoonover, 1988; Beckhard and Pritchard, 1992) identified the crucial role played by administrators in implementing change. The following discussion of Implications for Practice is approached as a series of recommendations to Extension directors, university administrators and change agents within organizations. The recommendations are not precise descriptions of what changes should occur, but are intended to serve as guidelines or reference points. Administrative styles and organization structures vary among Extension systems and reflect the historical traditions inherent in each system. These traditions will shape efforts to develop a strong international dimension. Internationalization of Extension is <u>not</u> viewed as a fourth dimension: teaching, research, service and international.

The Director of Extension and other administrators, to ensure organizational change occurs, need to adopt a three-part strategy for change: communication, decision making and assessment. Ping (1990) outlined a similar strategy for university internationalization.

COMMUNICATION of an administrator's support will be evident not only by what is said, but more importantly through the policies and procedures implemented in support of internationalization. A clear sense of direction, strong leadership in internationalizing and enthusiasm from leaders of the organization will help to ensure concerted and sustained action. An administrative retreat focusing on internationalization and multicultural sensitivity might be targeted as a first step in developing awareness. The Extension Director also needs to implement strategies encourage and reward middle managers and other administrators for fostering internationalization by members of the organization.

Faculty and agent recognition of the relationship between basic international issues and the Extension mission is the first step in the process of internationalization. For recognition to occur, internal motivation of agents and faculty must be nurtured. Thoughtfully conceived opportunities must be developed to generate enthusiasm and facilitate Extension educators developing knowledge and skills which can be transmitted to clientele through programming efforts. For some individuals, motivation and expertise development will include out-of-county opportunities, but for the majority of individuals other methods must be identified. A variety of different opportunities for staff development must be offered by Extension.

A needs assessment to determine agent and faculty needs, priorities and areas of expertise related to internationalization will be necessary prior to the development of a series of opportunities for staff development. Staff development methods may include workshops, mentoring, development and use of a lending library of resource materials, travel or participated in self-directed learning. Closer working arrangements with other units on the university campus involved in international work or multi-state programming are suggested.

POLICY AND RESOURCE DECISIONS such as the incorporation of fiscal support into the ongoing Extension budget and placing a person "in change" of internationalization to support and coordinate Extension program and activities, are necessary implementation strategies. While international experiences for faculty, agents and administrators were not viewed as critical characteristics of an internationalized Extension system, opportunities to work and pursue international assignments for both junior and senior faculty and agents were viewed by the Delphi Panel as having high importance. County agents, with or without faculty appointments, were singled out for these types of experiences by some panel members because of the domestic isolation a county agent may experience. A small grants program to foster individual development or infusion of international modules into existing program.

Policy mechanisms that support travel abroad, professional leaves, international assignments, participation in Fulbright programs need to be put in place to communicate a positive attitude and policy direction. Incorporation of international expectations into position guidelines, reward of middle managers for fostering positive change toward internationalization, searching for and hiring international candidates or those with international experience will enhance the human resource base of Extension. College and university administrators must be encouraged to support the incorporation of international concepts and content into course work at the undergraduate and graduate level.

A fear of career "derailments" for junior faculty caused by participation in international assignments was viewed by panel members as a potential barrier to internationalization which administration and faculty promotion and tenure committees will need to address. Peer recognition was viewed as being an integral element of any reward system developed to recognize internationalization efforts by faculty/agents. Extension leaders need to work with promotion and tenure committees at the local, department and college level to define international expectations.

ASSESSMENT, the final component in the three part strategy for change proposed, focuses on the outcomes achieved. Development of a plan and goal statement for internationalization will be critical factors, but implementation of the plan in a timely and forthright manner is even more important. Too many well conceived plans gather dust on shelves and become obsolete before they can be funded and implemented. Simple counting of the number of staff development opportunities offered, the number of participants in a given program or other numbers will not be sufficient to assess outcomes or impact. The more important question to address: are people acting differently, even in small ways? Organizational change is a slow and often discontinuous process in a complex organization. Ongoing assessment of the progress being made and revisions to modify the plan will be necessary.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

One outcome of the current study was the generation of additional questions and avenues for research. Research in the area of internationalization of Extension has been limited and the current study has perhaps raised as many questions as it has provided answers. Some of the major areas for study include:

1. What are the characteristics of an internationalized U.S. Extension system? Replication of the current study using a different panel of experts should be undertaken to ascertain the reliability of the results. Replication of the study using other survey approaches and populations should also be considered.
2. The Delphi Study concluded with 13 items where consensus was not reached by the panel of experts. Further examination and exploration of these items is needed. Particular attention might be given

to the issues of: (1) Do clientele support internationalization of Extension? Is "lack of opposition" the same as support?

3. Does the current organizational culture in universities and Extension support international assignments for faculty? What is currently happening with promotion and tenure guidelines and decisions? What attitudes exist among agents, faculty and administrators related to internationalization as defined by the current study?
4. What characteristics do state Extension systems, which by reputation are considered internationalized, exhibit? How do these characteristics compare with the Organizations Efforts and Organizational Results identified by the current study? Can the results of the study be used to develop a method for assessing the level of internationalization of a state university Extension system?
5. What factor(s) stimulated an uninvolved Extension system to change and begin the process of becoming internationalized? How are Extension directors involved in managing the change process? What is the relationship between the Director's level of support and achievement of internationalization? What barriers have internationalized Extension systems had to overcome? What strategies were employed and by whom?

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INTEGRATING PERSPECTIVES FROM LIFE SPAN DEVELOPMENT, ADULT DEVELOPMENT AND CAREER DEVELOPMENT LITERATURE

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ABSTRACT

This review of the literature included relevant perspectives from a variety of fields under these topic headings: life span development, adult development theory, career theory, and women's adult development and career theory. The conclusions derived are that there is a movement away from simplistic, linear, age-normative descriptions of adult development toward more holistic and interactionist perspectives to better describe the processes of adult development for women and men, especially the different ways their life courses develop. Systems theory or a variation incor-porating a cyclical movement may provide a useful basis for future models of adult development. Career theory is identified as a developing field with a body of valuable research to add to the understanding of adult development. The concept of transitions or adaptation as a normative force in adult development has been identified as a way to understand and assist adults as they encounter change and personal development throughout the life course.

INTRODUCTION

A recurrent theme connecting the research reviewed in this paper, is that change is accepted as a given factor in the process of growth and development across the life span. The fundamental question posed is: Does a linear, normative model of continuous improvement or self actualization by developmental phase or stage provide the most satisfactory way to understand the complexity of individual adult development in the larger social context ?

E. H. Schein (1986), Arthur, Hall, and Lawrence (1989), and Cytrynbaum and Crites (1989) identified several problems of career theory and research: 1) the field is fractionated because it includes research and researchers from many different fields in the social sciences; 2) the fact that all the sub-fields ignored each other's designs and findings; 3) most of the research reflected the cultural bias of the United States; 4) lack of integrative constructs and theory to develop linkages from the findings of one academic field to others; 5) lack of research on women's adult and career development which leads many to question the generalizability of research based primarily on the experience of men; 6) over-emphasis in research on the individual's internal psychological development and under-emphasis on the socio-environmental forces which influence adult and career development; and 7) lack of integration of adult development and career development theories. Courtenay (1994) recently questioned of the relevance of psychological models to adult education practitioners.

LIFE SPAN DEVELOPMENT THEORY

Life span development theory is defined as the multidisciplinary study of the development of humans in their cultural context. The origins of the study of life span development are found in many social science disciplines, such as developmental psychology, social psychology, sociol-ogy, and anthropology. The life span development perspective demonstrates the limitations of the specialized perspectives such as adult development theory and career theory, which have emerged simultaneously during the last forty years.

Hayslip and Panek (1989) summarize the major models of human development as organismic, mechanistic, psychoanalytic, and life span developmental. Each model considers the following seven major issues or dimensions: 1) Qualitative versus quantitative change; 2) The active versus passive nature of man; 3) Nature versus nurture; 4) Reductionistic versus holistic development; 5) The issue of stages; 6) A structure-function versus antecedent consequence interpretation of change; 7) A deterministic versus nondeterministic approach to development (Hayslip & Panek, 1989, p. 38).

Life span developmental theorists present an eclectic approach which integrates many aspects of the other models. The primary conceptual framework is based on the work of P. B. Baltes and associates

and the dialectal theory of development posed by K. F. Riegel. Hayslip and Panek (1989) describe Riegel's dialectic as the counterbalancing of the individual's internal factors (genetically preprogrammed instinctual behaviors, traits, characteristics, physiological states) and external factors (aspects of the physical environment, cultural components) which continuously influence and are influenced by each other (p. 29 - 30).

The life span development model differs from other models in that behavior throughout the life cycle is pluralistic; i.e., it is both multidirectional and multidimensional. The organismic and psychoanalytic models view development throughout the life cycle in simpler terms, as unidirectional and either increasing or decreasing. Several influences identified in the life span model must be considered to understand the complexity of development throughout life. Three of these influences are age-normative, history-normative, and nonnormative events. Each set of these influences is interactive and exhibits their influences throughout the life cycle (p. 30). Two other influences included in this model are: person-environment interaction and adult develop- ment in context. The person-environment interaction concept posits that the individual must have ability levels matched to environmental challenges in order to perform or adapt effectively. The concept of adult development in context is the influence of four interacting dimensions through-out the individual's life: 1) intrapersonal; 2) interpersonal; 3) biological; 4) cultural. The authors conclude that "adult development and aging is therefore best understood in relative terms, emphasizing a changing individual in a changing environment" (Hayslip and Panek, 1989, p. 39).

ADULT DEVELOPMENT THEORY

Adult development theory is another of the specialized perspectives in developmental research which emerged during the last four decades and is the literature most often cited in adult educa-tion. This area of research was first investigated in developmental psychology, with a primary focus on personality and influences from social psychology. This literature lacks the more complex interactionist perspective utilized in life span research. Adult development literature has generally identified two main approaches: the phasic approach and the stage approach. The phasic ap-proach maintains that development occurs during reasonably fixed and predictable periods of adult life. The stage approach maintains focus on the development of adult life tasks which are not easily correlated with age.

The phase approach concentrates on psychological or socio-psychological factors, described as the age-normative factors in life span developmental theory. The phase approach pays less atten-tion to factors such as history-normative and nonnormative factors, and processes such as person-environment interaction in placing adult development in its social-historical-cultural con-text. The work of phase development theorists, especially Levinson, has parallels with many aspects of career theory which has also tended to use a chronological or age-linked framework to understand and interpret career development processes.

The most familiar statement of phase theory is found in the life structure framework presented by Levinson (1978). Levinson's research proposed a model to understand adult development with specific life tasks which can be predicted according to chronological age. The life structure concept describes how individuals organize ways their of acting in and understanding the world, in terms of both the outer organization of tasks, activities, and relationships with others and the inner organization of psychological life. Levinson described eras as components for important life choices and the construction or maintenance of life structures. Each era includes interrelated normative factors such as the biological aspects of aging, as well as age-related changes in social relationships and changes in occupational status. In each era developmental tasks are identified related to establishing, maintaining, and evaluating the life structure of the current era or making the transition to the life structure of the next era.

The stage approach to development is founded on the biological concept of epigenesis, the patterns of development of a single organism with the following characteristics: 1) development is internally organized with minimal influence from environmental factors; 2) development moves through identifiable, discrete, and reasonably stable plateaus; 3) development is directed from simpler to more complex forms and more differentiated parts; 4) organisms display newly visible qualities at each identifiable stage which were not present in the previous developmental stage (Lasker & Moore, 1980, p. 15). The

stage approach to adult development has been characterized by the identification of levels of intellectual and ethical development leading to maturity that are more independent of age-related or chronological phases of adult life such as physical functioning, social relationships, or career factors.

Jane Loevinger and Robert Kegan researched stage theory working with a life course focus. Loevinger's research is based in the understanding of personality development, is a com-prehensive theory of ten stages of ego development. Robert Kegan's research (1982) presents a stage development process, the "Helix of Evolutionary Truces," which describes the individual as balancing or moving back and forth in a dialectical pattern between two poles of influence as she progresses along an upward spiral or helix pattern. The poles of the dialectic are described as psychologies favoring independence and psychologies favoring inclusion.

A systems analysis or framework is the final example of the evolution of adult development theory. Systems analysis, the study of how the parts of a system work together, was developed in the 1930s. In its purest form, a mathematical model is used to describe the individual parts of the system and develop the best way for the system to accomplish its task. This approach has been adapted to the understanding of human behavior, especially in the areas of counseling psychology and social work. Bronfenbrenner (1979) outlined what may be called a systems perspective using an ecological model. The interrelated environmental structures or systems are conceived as four concentric circles with the individual at the center of the inner circle. This inner circle is called the microsystem, the basic level of human experience in a particular setting, described as "a pattern of activities, roles, and interpersonal relations experienced by the developing person in a given setting with particular physical and material characteristics" (p. 22). The next circle is the mesosystem, a system of microsystems formed when the individual moves between settings, such as family, school, work, friends, and social life. The third and fourth circles, the exosystem and macrosystems represent the spheres in which the individual is not an active participant but which influence and may be influenced by the individual's actions at the micro- or mesosystem level. The human ecology approach differs from the broader studies of social psychology, sociology, and anthropology because the primary focus is on the way an individual's life evolves in the context of society rather than his psychological development.

Hudson (1991) describes individuals interacting in a multidimensional systems environment. This environment is described as composed of eight systems: 1) personal system; 2) couple's system; 3) family system; 4) friendship system; 5) work and career system; 6) leisure system; 7) social systems; 8) environmental system. Hudson proposes a cyclical conceptualization of the individual life span based on two cycles: the cycle of change and the life cycle. The cyclical view described by Hudson rejects the linear view of development as prescriptive, supposedly predictable, simplistic, and assumed that control over change is possible (p. 36). Hudson describes the fundamental shift in the cyclical systems conceptualization succinctly as the change "in our thinking from progress to process" (p. 31).

THE CONCEPT OF TRANSITIONS

The concept of transitions in adult life has emerged as an important part of the adult development and education literature. The concept has been investigated in several studies, sometimes under different names, such as adaptation or change. The concept of transitions has also been incorporated into models seeking to explain adult participation in education. Bronfenbrenner (1979) described ecological transitions as key to the ecology of human development as both a product and a producer of change. Hudson (1991), Fiske, Chiriboga, et al (1990), Fiske (1980), Fiske Lowenthal (1977), Levinson (1978, 1980) and Schlossberg (1989) all describe transitions as important in the adult development process occurring throughout the life span, serving as both a consequence of and instigator of developmental processes. The importance of transitions as part of a normative, linear developmental process is central to Levinson's model. Other researchers incorporate the concept of transitions but are less certain whether they are only a normative development process or better seen as the result of nonnormative events which equally influence adult life. Fiske observed, based on the research of the Longitudinal Study of Transitions, that a model of adult development which adopts "self-actualizing, developmental, personality, or normative crisis theories may be premature" (1980, p. 243). Lowenthal (Fiske), Thurner, Chiriboga, and associates (1977), and Fiske and Chiriboga (1990) reported in their long-term study of changes and continuities

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in adult life that they did not find evidence to support any pattern or phase structure of adult development. The information elicited from participants in the study did not fit existing theoretical frameworks. Rather than posit linear, normative development, Lowenthal (Fiske), et al, (1977) concluded that "the bottom line ...is that multiple causation is the basic rule in trying to understand the life-course implications of any experience" (p. 291).

CAREER THEORY

Career theory, another field of developmental research and theory formulation which has emerged over the last two decades, has been known variously as vocational development, vocational psychology, career development, and, more recently, simply as career theory. The term career theory is used in reference to this entire field. Many distinctive approaches to career theory have been identified in three literature reviews. The evolution of career theory from its roots in developmental psychology to more complex interactionist perspectives is again a recurrent theme. The approaches to career theory include: trait-factor theories; sociology and career choice; developmental/self-concept theory; vocational choice and personality theories; behavioral approaches; Holland's work on the interaction of vocational personalities and work environments; socioeconomic systems theory; Super's life-span, life-space approach; Schlossberg's model of adult career development transitions; decision-making theory; cognitive theory; sociological perspectives on careers, identities, and institutions; adult development theory, and developmental views of careers in organizations. These approaches are found in Arthur, Hall, and Lawrence (1989), McDaniels and Gysbers (1992), and Osipow (1983).

Donald Super has written extensively in the field of career theory and has evolved a career development model which draws upon three perspectives: trait-factor theory, self-concept theory, and developmental psychology. (Osipow, 1983). Super presented the parts of his theory in a conceptual framework described as the Life-Career Rainbow: Six Life Roles in Schematic Life Space. The conceptualization included six life roles in which everyone participates during their lifetime, frequently functioning in more than one role in any given period: 1) child, 2) student, 3) leisurite, 4) citizen, 5) worker, 6) homemaker. During the life span each person is influenced by situational determinants, such as historical and sociocultural factors, and personal determinants, such as psychological and biological factors, while participating in these roles. Super's overall conception was initially a linear progression, but in a 1990 summary of his more recent theoretical formulation it is described as more cyclical (Super, 1990, p. 237).

Vondracek, et al., (1986) presented a comprehensive synthesis of adult development and career development theory in a frame of reference labeled developmental contextualism. Vondracek, et al., described developmental contextualism as stressing "the active organism in an active world and the relation between the developing organism and its changing context" (p. 30). These authors summarized the changes occurring in the recent development of career theory as the incorporation of a life span development perspective, and the need for multidisciplinary research in career theory so the integration of perspectives will result in "an interdisciplinary, systems theory-type view of career development" (p. 6).

WOMEN'S ADULT DEVELOPMENT AND CAREER THEORY

A body of literature focusing on the adult and career development aspects of women's lives has been created in the last two decades. Gallos (1989) succinctly stated the reasons why: "Developmentally, women are different from men. The claim has surfaced so often, it can no longer be denied. ... Women construct their conceptions of themselves, their lives, and the world around them differently from men" (p. 110).

Gallos (1989), Gutek and Larwood (1987), and Gilligan (1980) reject adult development models, like Levinson's based on research using male subjects, which focus on the importance of work and achievement as central to the psychological processes of identity formation with the primary focus on individuation and separation from others. Gallos (1989) cited support for the different conceptions of women which reported that important sources of identity, maturity, and personal power are derived from the ongoing process of attachment to significant others in their lives and that professional and career achievements are complements for strong interdependent relation-ships, rather than substitutes

(p. 111). The literature on women's issues focuses less on causality and more on the holistic implications of gender-based developmental differences in the lives of women and the development of career theory to accurately describe the experiences of women. Gallos identified two basic themes, attachment and separation, in her review of the literature on both men's and women's adult development which operate in almost opposite ways in the lives of men as opposed to women's lives.

Another perspective is presented by Giele (1980), rejecting linear development models as limiting to the experiences contained in women's lives, she describes the concept of "crossover" as a mechanism or process of development to account for the diverse life paths of women. This crossover process values the diversity in number and type of life experience rather than a specified or preferred sequence of events or activities. Giele proposes the concept of crossover as a new paradigm in theoretical sociological understanding: "the crossover metaphor creates an image of bridges between territories that are different, that may never be entirely merged with each other; the image also implies that movement can occur in both directions" (1980, p. 9). The applicability of the concept of crossover to understanding adult roles and changes in the adult life cycle is seen by Giele in the changes in age roles as well as gender roles observed in society during the last three decades: "the process of refining developmental tasks into ever more discrete bundles makes them more moveable across the boundaries of any particular moment in time. Developmental tasks can be broken apart and can be recombined in somewhat different sequences than traditionally thought possible" (p. 11). Individuals are enabled to construct their life pattern with maximum flexibility because it has become possible to vary the schedule of developmental tasks. This varied schedule of developmental tasks or events, whether triggered by age-normative transitions or by nonnormative stressors are described more frequently in the career patterns and adult development of women than men.

Cafarella and Olson (1993) reported a critical review of the literature on the psychosocial develop-ment of women. This review focused on conceptual frameworks of adult female development and 20 empirical studies of the psychosocial development of women with all female participants. They identified three major themes emerging from this review: "diverse and non-linear patterns of development characterized by discontinuities and periods of stability and transition are the norm for women; intimacy and identity are key issues throughout women's lives; and importance of relationships and a sense of connectedness to others are central to the overall developmental process" (p. 125).

CONCLUSION

This review of the literature included relevant perspectives from a variety of fields under these topic headings: life span development, adult development theory, career theory, and women's adult development and career theory. The following conclusions were derived from reviewing this literature: 1) There is a movement away from simplistic, linear age-normative descriptions of adult development toward more holistic and interactionist perspectives to better describe the processes and influences of adult development for women and men, especially the ways their lives develop differently. Support for this conclusion is found in the literature on life span development, adult development, motivation, and career theory. 2) Systems theory is used in several recent formulations to describe and understand the forces which form and impact the lives of men and women. The application of systems theory is described in life span development, adult development, and career theory. 3) The concept of transitions or adaptation as a normative force in adult development has been identified as a way to understand and assist adults as they encounter change and personal development. occur throughout the life span, serving as both a consequence of and instigator of developmental processes. 4) Career theory is identified as an important field of research with the potential to contribute valuable research to the understanding of adult development. Many individuals writing in the area of career theory have incorporated life span and adult development theory into their research. 5) Many of the active researchers in the area of adult development have not yet incorporated recent findings in life span or career theory into adult development literature and theory.

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EMPLOYMENT AND CAREER OUTCOMES OF ADULT LEARNERS AND THE OUTCOMES ASSESSMENT PROCESS

Henry S. Merrill, Ed. D.

ABSTRACT

A multicase study investigated the educational, employment and career patterns of adults, in their mid-20s through early 50s, four or more years after completing a nontraditional bachelor's degree, the Indiana University School of Continuing Studies Bachelor of General Studies degree program (IU/SCS BGS). The purpose of this paper is to report the employment and career patterns of these alumni and describe how this research is being continued so the information may be integrated into the outcomes assessment process at Indiana University East for the Bachelor of General Studies degree. The assessment process will also include an Academic/ Career Planning Worksheet, an Outcome Assessment Portfolio, and a Capstone Seminar.

INTRODUCTION

The research is useful in several specific areas. First, nontraditional degrees are a comparatively recent phenomenon in post-secondary education. These degrees have aroused much interest as programs which may meet important needs of adult learners. Research focused on the types of employment and career patterns of the graduates of a specific nontraditional degree program will help determine if and in what ways these programs are effective vehicles to assist adults in effecting change in their life structures. Second, the fact of career transitions as one of the major changes which motivates adults to seek further education is well documented. Aslanian and Brickell (1980) projected adults will make as many as six or seven job changes during their working life and will make these career transitions through lifelong education and training. Third, the research has practical applications in the development of information to be used in the outcomes assessment process in determining the effectiveness of this type of nontraditional bachelors degree program.

THE RESEARCH PROCESS

This research is guided by the assumptions and principles of naturalistic inquiry. There are no predetermined hypotheses so the theoretical assumptions are grounded in the data collected (Merriam, 1988). The data collection in this study are guided by the following research questions presented which defined the focus for this multicase study:

1) What were the educational patterns and levels of attainment of the IU/ SCS BGS graduates prior to enrollment in the BGS program ?

2) What were the types of employment of the IU/ SCS BGS graduates prior to enrollment in the degree program ?

3) In what ways did attainment of the IU/SCS BGS degree change the types of employment of BGS graduates ?

4) In what ways did attainment of IU/SCS BGS degree change the career patterns of the BGS graduates ?

DESCRIPTION OF THE POPULATION

The participants in this study were alumni of the Indiana University School of Continuing Studies Bachelor of General Studies degree program (IU/SCS BGS) who completed the degree at the Indiana University East campus (the regional campus located in Richmond, Indiana). This program is best described as a nontraditional degree rather than an external degree program because it does not necessarily emphasize off-campus, self-directed study (although that is an option for students without access to a campus of Indiana University or another college or university). The IU/SCS BGS degree did not require any residency period at any of the Indiana University campuses so students may complete degree requirements using correspondence courses and/or credit for self-acquired college-level learning as documented by a portfolio process. Participants included those who used a combination of the above methods of learning as well as traditional campus-based credit courses transferred to or completed at any Indiana University campus.

Indiana University East is a regional campus for commuter students who mostly reside in a seven county area in eastern Indiana. The student enrollment at Indiana University East was 1500-1800 students during the three-year period (1987-1989) when these participants graduated. The average female/male ratio was approximately 60%/40%. The average age of the students was 27 years old. The campus had an inventory of 15 associate degree programs, with both liberal arts or sciences and professional orientations, during this time. The Bachelor's of General Studies was the only baccalaureate degree which students could complete entirely at the East campus during the period when these participants completed the degree.

DESCRIPTION OF THE NATURALISTIC RESEARCH PROCESS

During summer and fall 1992, participating alumni were interviewed for the study. The interview process used a semi-structured approach (Merriam, 1988) to ensure that certain information was obtained from all participants. This study collected information about types of employment and career patterns prior to enrollment in the BGS and after completing the BGS from all respondents. Information obtained by the researcher from archival data about educational patterns and levels of attainment prior to enrolling in the BGS was confirmed during the interview.

The information gathered from student record sources and the interviews of participants was summarized in a data base developed by recording information for each participant by row on an Excel Spreadsheet. This Spreadsheet was divided into four sections: 1) Archival Student Record Information; 2) First Interview; 3) Second Interview; 4) Ranked Reasons for Completing the BGS. The analysis of archival data enabled demographic information and educational achievement prior to enrolling in the BGS degree to be merged with interview information. Each column of the spreadsheet contained specific archival record data or information based on responses to questions from the Interview Guide from each participant. The Excel spreadsheet allowed the information to be sorted using up to three variables, as another way to identify patterns.

FINDINGS: EMPLOYMENT AND CAREER PATTERNS OF THE ALUMNI

ARCHIVAL STUDENT RECORD INFORMATION FINDINGS

The information collected from the records of these students was representative of adults returningto college to complete a degree program. Ten of the twelve participants completed high school within Indiana University East's seven county service area in eastern Indiana. One participant dropped out of high school and earned a GED, all the others completed high school in a traditional four year pattern. Eight of the participants went to work or joined the military immediately after high school and four enrolled in college in the fall following their high school graduation. Eleven of the twelve participants were in the first generation of their family to complete a college degree. The transfer credits applied to completion of the BGS by the nine students with previous college ranged from 21 to 99.5 credit hours. The participants were enrolled in the BGS program for as little as one semester and up to 13 semesters (including Summer Sessions as one semester) to complete the degree. The cumulative grade point averages at graduation ranged from 2.2 to 3.8 (on a 4-point scale where A= 4.0).

ANALYSIS OF THE INTERVIEWS

The first interview included questions about: 1) participants' educational goals and educational achievements prior to enrolling in the BGS program; 2) participants' employment and career pattern prior to enrolling in the BGS program; and 3) changes in the participants' type of employment and career pattern as a result of completing the BGS degree. Participants indicated a pattern of delayed goal setting. In response to the question about when they first set earning a college degree as a goal, five participants indicated it was during high school, four indicated it was during their 20s, and three indicated it occurred during their 30s. In response to a question about when they first defined career goals beyond employment to make ends meet, only one participant indicated it occurred during high school, four indicated it was during their 20s, and seven said it was during their 30s.

The patterns which emerged from the information collected in the first interview showed change in both types of employment and types of careers. The changes in employment and career paths from before completing the BGS and after completing the BGS are shown in Table 1. Five of the twelve

participants changed from jobs with less responsibility and lower skills in Department of Labor Categories 3, 4, 5, and 9 to Department of Labor Categories 1 and 2. The participant with one more year of dental school to complete will move from Category 9 to Category 1 when he becomes licensed to practice. One participant remained in Category 5 (Administrative Support), although with a job change to assume a position with more responsibilities after completing the BGS. One participant in her Twenties has established her career in Category 5 (Administrative Support) but felt the need for more challenging responsibilities. Another participant, also in his Twenties, was in Category 3 (Technical Occupations) while completing the degree and then changed employment to Category 5 after graduation. This was the only case where a participant moved to a lower category after completing the degree. The change was due to a reorganization of the department which forced him to chose between moving to northern Indiana or returning to his previous position.

Table 1. Changes in participants' employment category on the U. S. Department of Labor National Industry-Occupation Matrix

Industry-Occupation Matrix Category #	Abbreviated title of National Industry-Occupational Matrix category	Number of participants in category before BGS	Number of participants in category after BGS
1	Executive, Administrative & Managerial	0	3
2	Professional Specialty	3	5 + 1*
3	Technicians & Related Support	1	0
4	Marketing & Sales	2	0
5	Administrative Support	3	3
6	Service Industry-Occupations	1	0
9	Operator, Fabricator & Laborer	2	0

Notes: 1. Categories 7 & 8 omitted because no participants employed in them.
2. * 1 still in dental school

Eleven of the twelve participants have changed employment since completing the BGS. For eight of the twelve participants this was also a career change which they attributed, at least in part, to completing the BGS. Seven participants described the degree as providing the minimum educational requirement or "credential" necessary to make a career change or qualify for a change of employment, such as a promotion or change to a different position or department. Nine of the participants reported being "very satisfied" and two were "satisfied" with their present work. One participant reported being "very dissatisfied" with her work due its routine nature, lack of challenge, and little recognition of her skills and degree. All but the one participant dissatisfied with her work described work as being a major part of their life, second only to family responsibilities.

One of the questions asked during the follow-up telephone contact with participants requested information about any significant salary increases within one year and within three years after completing the BGS. Three of the participants reported no significant salary increases after three years. Five of the other nine participants reported increases after three years ranging from 10% - 90%. Two participants reported salary increases of more than 100% and the remaining two reported increases of more than 200%.

A "Ranking of Reasons for Completing the BGS" survey was completed by all participants at the start of the second interview. Respondents were asked to choose at least five of the reasons on the survey and rank the most important as 1, next-most important as 2, etc. The ranking of factors demonstrated the ways alumni perceived the BGS degree helped them make career transitions or become qualified

for promotions, as well as satisfy a goal to complete a degree and satisfy their own personal interest in learning. This ranking supports the information on employment and career change reported during the first interview. The reason most frequently selected, chosen by eleven of the twelve participants, was the "Desire to have a degree." "Personal interest in learning" was the next reason indicated most frequently, chosen by eight participants. "Career change" was the third most important reason, selected by seven participants. "Flexible program," "Convenient Location," and "Available at convenient times" also were included by five participants, but with lower rankings.

ANALYZING THE BGS ALUMNI DATA BASE WITH SORTING TECHNIQUES

First, the data base was reorganized and reduced to a more manageable size by selecting data elements and combining them in six categories. These categories were identified as: Demographic Variables, Employment Variable, Employment Up-grade Variable, Satisfaction Variable, Self-direction Variable, and Empowerment Variable. Relevant data elements drawn from the original data base were assigned to these categories by the researcher for each variable.

During the process of analyzing the Interview Summaries a pattern appeared which suggested that participants might be similar to two of the three categories described by Houle (1961) in his typology of adult learners. The similarity was suggested by the reasons selected for completing the degree. Eight participants appeared to be goal-oriented, as described in Houle's typology. They were included in a category labeled as Career Pattern for the present study. However, there appeared to be a dichotomy among these eight participants, which lead to establishing two Career Pattern sub-categories. The first Career Pattern sub-category was labeled Establishing Professional Career. This grouping included four participants who were very directed toward career goals. The second Career Pattern sub-category, which also included four participants, was labeled Career Development/Change with Intervening Circumstances. The remaining four participants appeared to be similar to Houle's learning-oriented type. They were grouped in a category labeled as Personal Interest in Learning Pattern for the present study. This emerging Learner-Career Typology was also incorporated into the revised data base. These two Learner-Career Typologies appeared to have three somewhat distinct career development patterns. The following summary links each of these Learner-Career Typology categories with the educational and career patterns described.

ESTABLISHING A PROFESSIONAL CAREER PATTERN

One commonly held image of the adult returning to complete a college degree is that of the individual focused on specific educational and career goals which are pursued in precise, unwavering fashion. That description holds true for four of the individuals in this study. All four of these individuals expressed strong career-related motivations. The items they selected as most important reasons for completing a degree related to career change, obtaining employment, promotions, or pay increases. They worked in a very focused way to complete the degree to meet their employment and career goals in as short a time as possible. Three of the four were employed full-time and reported increases in income ranging from 45% to 220% within three years after completing the degree (the fourth had not yet completed dental school).

CAREER DEVELOPMENT/CHANGE WITH INTERVENING CIRCUMSTANCES PATTERN

Four of these 12 participants described more complex and dynamic interactions as part of the process of defining and attaining their educational goals and defining and attaining their career goals. Their employment patterns and career patterns also showed substantial change on the National Industry-Occupation Matrix which demonstrated some effectiveness of the BGS as part of the process of Employment upgrading they reported.

In addition to their desire complete a degree and, in several cases, be promoted or change careers, these graduates substantially defined their career goals as a result of either learning experiences in college or employment-related circumstances while still completing the degree. The phrase "intervening circumstances" seemed to describe the educational, employment, and career patterns reported by these graduates. They reported unanticipated opportunities which allowed them to complete changes beyond those which they planned when they began their degree program as part of a life change process.

They were all in their 30s or 40s so none of these participants were in the phase of establishing their careers. Only one of these participants selected Personal interest in learning as any of the five reasons for completing the degree (it was her fifth reason). These individuals did not have the single-minded vision of their goal when contrasted to the four participants included in the Establishing Professional Career sub-category. But they were in a process of career transition, during what Chickering and Havighurst (1981) identified as the Midlife Transition. One of the tasks of that transition is described as revising career plans. Like many other adults returning to college they were primarily motivated by career factors, but had a less precise employment or career goal than those in the Establishing Professional Career sub-category. The changes in the careers of three of these graduates may have been the result of multiple factors such as good management identification of potential or simple good fortune while in the process of actively seeking change and implementing a process of personal and professional development by completing the BGS.

PERSONAL INTEREST IN LEARNING PATTERN

Four of the participants described a desire to attain the degree for their own personal interest and satisfaction rather than to complete a degree as a credential for employment up-grading. This group appeared to correlate very closely with Houle's learning-oriented adults.

The analysis of the BGS research project data base by sorting techniques appeared to provide support to an emergent Learner-Career Typology which has some correspondences with Houle's typology of adult learners. A multicase study of twelve participants is not sufficient to establish more than a tentative outline. The three categories described above may provide a foundation for further research in connection with this tentative framework presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Comparison of Houle's typology with proposed Learner-Career Typology

Houle's Typology of Learners:	Proposed Learner-Career Typology:
Goal-oriented adults	Career Pattern Category with 2 sub-categories: ∘ Establish Professional Career ∘ Career Development/Change with Intervening Circumstances
Learning-oriented adults	Personal Interest in Learning Category
Activity-oriented adults	Nothing comparable in this study

This summary of the findings is based on the information of the original 12 participants: 1) What were the educational patterns and levels of attainment of the graduates prior to enrollment in the degree ? Eleven participants graduated from high school in a traditional pattern and nine were transfer students. All but one was in the first generation of their family to graduate from college. 2) What were the types of employment of the graduates prior to enrollment in the degree program ? The participants had worked in varied employment, with about half employed in labor and service industry jobs for the majority of their employment history. Three of the younger participants were establishing careers. 3) In what ways did attainment of the degree change their types of employment ? Three to five years after completing the degree, nine of the twelve participants were in executive or management positions or professional specialty occupations. Three participants were in administrative support positions. 4) In what ways did attainment of the degree change their career patterns ? The participants reported the degree had helped, but was not necessarily the primary reason for career change. Some participants were goal-oriented so the degree was a necessary credential to enter graduate school or qualify for a promotion or career change.

Selected conclusions drawn from the original study: 1) The study demonstrated the usefulness of a bachelor's degree in terms of employment up-grading. 2) Most of the participants described increased empowerment and self-directedness in their lives. 3) Three learner-career development patterns have emerged from this research to this point: a) Establishing a Professional Career Pattern; b) Career Change/Development with Intervening Circumstances Pattern; c) Personal Interest in Learning Pattern. These patterns appeared to be similar to two of Houle's typologies of adult learners: goal-oriented and learning-oriented.

INTEGRATING THE BGS ALUMNI RESEARCH WITH OUTCOMES ASSESSMENT

The first phase of this project was completed as dissertation research reported in 1993 based on interviews with 12 participants. The next phase began in the summer of 1994 with interviews of additional participants who graduated in 1990. Regardless of whether the emerging learner-career typology has any lasting utility to understanding adult development and education, this project is being integrated as the alumni research component into the outcomes assessment process for the IU/SCS BGS at the East campus. This assessment process is adapted from principles described by Hutchings (1990) which will enable the BGS students to) focus on learning as the aim and test of teaching in each course; 2) recognize the types of learning that transcend individual course and discipline content; 3) assume shared responsibility for the collaborative learning-teaching process; and 4) thinking of their intentional, self-directed learning as the goal toward which their total college experience is aimed (p. 37-8).

The BGS degree is unique among degree programs at the East campus due to its flexible, individualized requirements which allows students completing the degree to be self-directed in planning their program goals and course selection. The program does not have a cadre of faculty or discipline-based courses and academic major. The components of the assessment process for the BGS include: 1) Use of an Academic/Career Planning Worksheet to identify their program goals and guide course selection in consultation with an academic advisor and/or faculty mentor; 2) Transcript analysis project of a sample of the 179 BGS alumni who graduated within the last 10 years to establish baseline data from archival student records on the demographic information and patterns of enrollment in each of the required areas of learning, transfer credits, types of enrollment (on-campus, correspondence, self-acquired competency, etc.), length of time to graduate, number of hours enrolled each semester, and grade point average at graduation); 3) Planned implementation in 1996 of an Outcomes Assessment Portfolio process as part of a Capstone Seminar, including reflection on the plan developed with the Academic/Career Planning Worksheet.

(References will be provided upon request.)

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PREPARING PROGRAM VOLUNTEERS TO BE PROBLEM SOLVERS

Larry E. Miller and Shinshin Chen

ABSTRACT

This study examined the level of cognition at which instruction was provided to adult volunteers, which was treated as the dependent variable. Numerous characteristics of the instructors and volunteers were used to determine if they could predict or explain the variability in the dependent variable. Most instruction occurred at lower levels of cognition. The regression model explained 97.6% of the variance.

INTRODUCTION

Many adult education agencies need additional staff in order to deliver their educational services under the financially exigent times which exist today. Assistance can be gained through the use of volunteers who can make substantial contributions because of their special life experiences and strong community identity (Ilsley & Niemi, 1981). Full-time and part-time adult educators cannot do the job alone (Chen, 1994) and need the assistance of volunteers who enhance public awareness of and support for the program goals, enrich services for a culturally and educationally changing adult population. Tyler (1966) noted that volunteers also improve agency climate, learn themselves, produce greater public awareness, supplement and complement employed staff and make increased services possible.

BODY OF THE PAPER

To be effective, volunteers need to be trained. Do training programs prepare them to be problem solvers, critical thinkers, and/or decision makers? Considering the levels of cognition at which instruction is delivered to volunteers, are they taught at higher levels of cognition? Are they really being prepared to be the problem solvers, decision makers and critical thinkers they will have to be in the context of providing volunteer assistance to programs?

QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

The purpose of this study was to describe the levels of cognition at which instruction is delivered to volunteers, and to determine the relationship between the levels of cognition (Y) and (X's) level of participation in the program, attitude of volunteers toward the topic, characteristics of the instructors, and selected characteristics of the volunteers; thus, could these variables (X's) explain the variability in Y. To achieve this purpose the following objectives were addressed: (1) describe the characteristics of instructors: gender, age, educational level, academic major of degree, area of specialization, amount of preparation in teaching methods, number of years of adult teaching experience, number of years of teaching experience, number of years employed by the agency, amount of professional time devoted to this agency, and type of audience; (2) describe the characteristics of the volunteers: gender, age, educational level, interest in and value of the topic to the volunteer, previous experience as a volunteer, past association with the agency, and type of volunteer; (3) describe the actual levels of cognition at which instruction was delivered to the volunteers; (4) ascertain the relationships among these variables; (5) determine which variables were the best predictors of (explained the variability in) the levels of cognition at which instruction was delivered.

Volunteers constitute a category of adult learners. If educators better understood the relationship among instructor, student and classroom characteristics; the outcomes of adult education, possibly knowledge transfer and utilization, would improve (Miller & Kitinoja, 1993). Cognitive psychologists conduct a plethora of studies on thinking, but little of it has been applied to the adult setting to improve practice. Several studies have examined the cognitive aspects of adult instruction (Miller & Kitinoja, 1993; Ismail, 1992; Whittington, 1991; Bhardwaj, 1989, Pickford, 1988; Newcomb & Trefz, 1987) but a paucity exists

with volunteer groups where limited resources makes the quality of instruction especially important. Raudabaugh (1967), Henderson (1988), and Boone (1989) have noted the need for adult educators to teach for higher level cognition and prepare persons to identify their own needs and be problem solvers and decision makers. New knowledge related to the levels of cognition of instruction would permit adult educators to begin to practice lesson planning and delivery at higher cognitive levels.

PROCEDURES

The population for this study was 85 4-H county extension agents in May 1993 from each of the geographical regions of the Ohio Cooperative Extension Service (OCES). A random sample of 4 agents from each district (n=20) was selected from an up-to-date and accurate frame. Three instruments were developed for the study: (1) a demographic questionnaire for agents (2) similar questionnaire for volunteers, and (3) an semantic differential attitudinal instrument. The Newcomb and Trefz (1987) classification system to measure levels of cognition of instruction was used, and Flander's Interaction Analysis system (1967) was used to measure level of participation.

Appropriate reliability and validity measures were established on all measuring techniques The Cronbach's α on the attitude instrument was .88, and the intra-rater reliabilities of the measurement of levels of participation and levels of cognition measured as percentage of agreement on a test-retest protocol was approximately 95%. Panels of experts established content validity on the measurement procedures.

Data were gathered through direct visits to the 20 volunteer training programs conducted by the agents. OCES and Human Subjects approval were granted for these procedures. On-site, the agents and the volunteers completed the instruments. The researcher video taped the instructional program and later analyzed the video to procure data on levels of cognition and participation.

Data analysis was done with SPSS-PC* using descriptive statistics to summarize, correlations, and regression. Appropriate statistics were utilized for the scale of measurement of the variables and the assumptions for their utilization were met. A combination of stepwise and hierarchical stepwise regression were used with the total R^2 value calculated to determine the amount of variance in the dependent variable accounted for by the linear combination of independent variables.

CONCLUSIONS

Descriptive information was gathered to achieve Objectives 1 and 2. Most agents had a Master's degree, had educational versus technical specialties as areas of study, typical agents saw themselves as specialists in leadership, or youth development, communication or educational design, most had some credit courses or informal instruction in pedagogy/andragogy, had taught adults, been in extension or worked with 4-H for an average of 10 years.

Volunteer programs studied included 11 for teens and nine for adults. The majority of the volunteers were female (60%), over half had a high school diploma and an additional 26.7% of the adult volunteers had a BS, over 95% were interested in the topic presented and also believed that it could help them, nearly 85% had volunteered before with an average of nearly 7 years, and over 60% were or had been 4-H members with an average over 7 years,.

Further, on-site analysis and video tapes of instructional sessions were used to assess the actual levels of cognition at which instruction was delivered. Richer detail could be gleaned from videos that mere observation, and 5% of the instructors taught, as the highest level they achieved, at the "remembering" level, 30% at the "processing", 50% at the "creating", and 15% at the "evaluating" level of cognition. Totally, 48% of instruction was at the "remembering" level, 38% at the "processing", 13% at the "creating" and 1% at the "evaluating" level. While one would not be able to prescribe an ideal distribution for instruction by level of cognition, over half of the agents delivered instruction in a category of less than 10% in the "higher levels of cognition".

Correlations were calculated, appropriate for the scales of measurement, among the variables with particular emphasis for this paper placed upon using "level of participation" and "level of cognition". A substantial, positive correlation (r=.58) was found. Therefore, the more students participated, then the higher the level of cognition achieved. Level of participation tended to be higher when females (r_{pb}= -.30) were the teachers, when the instructors were younger (r= -.14), when agents were at lower educational levels (r_s= -.36), when agents were not education majors (r_{pb}= -.19), when agents had less years of teaching experience (r= -.16). Levels of cognition tended to be higher when the volunteers were predominately male (r_{pb}= .16), when the volunteer were younger (r= -.50), when the level of education of the volunteers were lower (r_s= -.37), when the instructor was female (r_{pb}= -.10), and when the instructor had an education-related major in their academic studies (r_{pb}= .19).

Regarding Objective 5, a combination of hierarchical and stepwise regression was used to explain the variances in levels of cognition. The regression model explained 97.6% (this is not a typo) of the variance, with 89.5% of the variance explained by characteristics of the instructor, .7% by characteristics of the volunteers and 7.4% by level of participation. Variables related to the volunteers explained only .7% of the variability in level of cognition and level of participation explained 7.4% of the variance.

The independent variables were also regressed upon level of participation to determine their ability to explain or predict variability. Again, agents' characteristics explained over 93% of the variability; volunteers' characteristics explained only .3%. Further, the independent variables were also regressed on attitude toward the topic with agents' characteristics explaining over 24%, and volunteers' characteristics 4.8%.

Descriptive data revealed that nearly 75% of the instruction was provided at the lower levels of cognition (remembering & processing). Higher level cognition areas of creating and evaluating are synonymous with the thinking required for problem solving, critical thinking and decision making. Instruction is not being delivered to volunteer adults which would provide them with practice at exercising the abilities needed for higher level processing. While one would not suggest an ideal mix of proportions by level for instruction, because a hierarch was suggested to exist in cognitive processing by Bloom, et al. (1956), professional adult educators must begin to conceptualize how to prepare adult instructors for this important task of developing higher order cognitive abilities in the learners. This would suggest that such consideration be applied to program planning, delivery and evaluation. Planning for higher level cognition should even be considered when specifying the instructional objectives for a program. Teaching strategies must be used which lead learners through higher order thinking processes. Questioning and student participation techniques have been successful in developing these abilities. Yet, this research revealed that nearly 73% of instructional time was filled with "teacher talk". Nearly 60% of the programs had student talk of less than 20% of the instructional time.

Predicting level of cognition of instruction resulted in a powerful model. Meeting the assumptions for use of hierarchical and stepwise regression, the factors related to the instructor were the most salient in the model. Therefore, to improve the ability of programs to deliver at higher levels of cognition, remediation should focus upon the instructor (agents).

Succinctly stating some recommendations, then, one could recommend that lesson and program planning strategies be developed to teach volunteers at higher levels of cognition; instructors (agents) should become familiar with the classification of educational objectives -- levels of cognition -- and how to teach at those levels; agents should provide greater time for participating volunteers to talk to exercise higher order thinking skills; during instruction activities of the teachers should foster the opportunity for participants to practice higher order thinking abilities. Further, OCES should encourage agents to strive for higher order thinking among participants, should select employees with education-related backgrounds or more high school teaching experience; continue to evaluate programs and agents related to the level of cognition of instruction. Additionally, the OSU and the College of Agriculture that administers OCES should develop courses to teach the pedagogy/andragogy for higher order

thinking, and should take the responsibility for developing inservice activities to improve the pedagogy/andragogy.

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EXAMINING A TRANSFORMATIVE MODEL: RECYCLING DIVERGENT CULTURAL PATTERNS IN MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION TEACHING PRACTICES

Kris L. Miller

ABSTRACT

"Two roads diverged in a wood, and I took the one less traveled", (Robert Frost). Ethnocentrism has clouded our lens for viewing other cultures. The emerging demographic diversity has raised fundamental questions about America's identity and culture. Multicultural education (MCE) is an emerging path to re-constructing teacher training, curriculum development, and instructional methods which affect teacher attitudes and expectations. This paper presents a multicultural instructional model encouraging dialectical thought. It is a constructivist approach emphasizing a perspective transformation as an intended outcome. Research in dialectical thinking (Basseches, 1984) and perspective transformation (Mezirow, 1991) have provided the theoretical framework for this MCE transformative model. Graduate students enrolled in a multicultural education class at a Midwestern university voluntarily provided the narrative information used in this pilot study.

INTRODUCTION

A Literature review of multicultural education approaches suggests there is great debate over the purpose, definitions and instructional strategies to develop effective multicultural teachers and trainers. The heated discourse on multicultural education often obscures the theory, research, and developing consensus among multicultural education specialists about the nature, aims, and scope of the field. A major goal of multicultural education--as stated by specialists in the field--is to reform the school and other institutions so that students from diverse racial, ethnic, and social-class groups will experience educational equality and mobility (Banks, 1994).

Complete agreement regarding the variety of typologies, conceptual schemes, and perspectives within the field reflects its emergent status and the fact that complete agreement about its aims and boundaries has not been attained (Baker,1983; Banks, 1992; Bennet,1990; Garcia,1991; Gollnick & Chinn, 1990). Banks (1988) supports the notion that cognitive, learning, and motivational styles among ethnic groups sometimes differ and that it is important for educators to understand the characteristics of ethnic groups and socio-economic classes can help us to understand groups but not individuals. All types of learning and motivational styles are found within all ethnic groups and social classes. Sleeter (1991), suggests that MCE has been sidestepped over the past few decades, particularly in the 1980's. She examines and clarifies concepts as empowerment, powerlessness, and oppression. Sleeter cautions that an important issue is "who speaks for whom--or whether people speak for themselves--in the name of empowerment, social equity, and multicultural education".

The need to develop multicultural education as a vital cultural component to educational training programs is apparent whether it be in the K-12 system, business, industry, or human service organizations. There are many educational curricula and training programs which vary in scope and instructional strategies. It is important for practitioners to be specific about program goals and intended outcomes. Certain MCE approaches are more appropriate than others depending on learners needs and context of the learning environment. Educators face a tremendous challenge by understanding, affirming, and reflecting cultural diversity and must understand the influence of racism, classism, and sexism on the lives of all persons. The instructional philosophy of the transformative model (Figure 1.) implies the centrality of our ability to think critically and reflectively about our own ways and those of others in selecting and developing the most appropriate means of constructing knowledge within the multicultural curriculum.

A TRANSFORMATIVE MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION MODEL

This transformative model for multicultural education instruction implies that the way people organize their understanding of diversity issues, is a major conflict within the value-laden themes of pluralism. The model integrates MCE content, critical thinking and reflection as students dialogue about their own past and present cultural experiences, attitudes and beliefs. Cultural experiences and the development of interaction with different cultural and ethnic groups may contribute to an understanding of Self in relation to Other. Dialogue, (e.g. journal writing, group dicussions,) is a significant part of the transformative process. The importance of dialectical thinking to perpetuate the perspective transformation process encourages the learners to struggle with re-creating meanings by resolving internal cognitive conflicts about cultural and ethnic assumptions. The outcomes of this dialectic thinking encourages awareness of other possibilities and recognizes that no solution is necessarily absolute and final (Basseches, 1984). This model invites educational practitioners in fields of education and training to take a critical stance in examining their own values and assumptions and the extent to which these perpetuate the myths of our educational and training practices. It suggests that practitioners examine the aims and intended outcomes of their multicultural curriculum design so that the instructional strategy meets the needs of the learners.

Mezirow's work on perspective transformation contributes a constructivist theory which implies that our culture is learned through socialization. The dialectical tranformative process assists learners to construct and appropriate cultural learning into new or revised interpretations of experiences. The interactive relationships between abstract thinking and concrete experiences must expose our contradictions to create a community of inquiry, to develop intellectual courage to challenge social-economic, and political assumptions, and to develop integrity and persistence to embrace our cultural uniqueness as a rich resource of human potential (Mezirow, 1991).

This transformative model illustrates an interactive movement through cognitive relationships of components of the model. Basseches' (1980) research on dialectical thinking suggests there is motion between "Self" and "Other" which affects the actions of each. Transformative education encourages the expansion of consciousness and the working toward a meaningful integrated life. This paper suggests facilitating dialectical thinking within MCE instructional environment challenges the instructor to present learners with multiple frames of reference not merely "established facts" which may be laced with ethnocentric bias. Multiple perspectives must be based on divergent or contrasting assumptions.

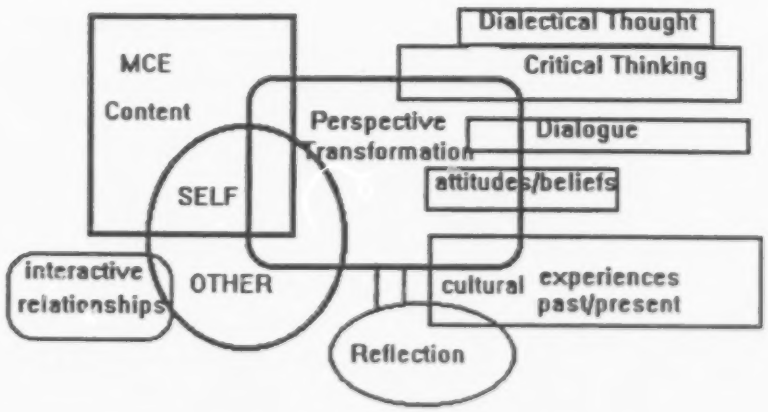

Figure 1. Transformative Multicultural Education Instructional Model.

RESEARCH FINDINGS & DISCUSSION

The multicultural education course consisted of thirty three graduate students in various fields of education, social work, human services, and human resource environments. The age of students varied between

twenty four and fifty-eight. The class was diverse in multicultural knowledge and experience. Course content included examination of equity, culture, ethnicity, racism, classism, gender issues, sexual orientation, exceptionality, MCE approaches, and perspective transformation. The dialectical transformation model (Figure 1.) provided the framework of instructional strategy during the four month period.

The qualitative research suggests that cultural understanding, empathy, and fostering collaboration must begin with the "Self". The personal risk-taking involved with critical examination of one's divergent values and beliefs can be frustrating and emotionally exhausting. Some students struggle with cognitive disequilibrium resistance, and disengagement, while others express an openness to the challenge of dialectical thought and new perspectives.

The informative material to support the transformative MCE model was voluntarily provided by students. The material included an individual knowledge survey, demographic information, weekly journal entries related to class discussion topics, responses to participation in cultural events, reflections on family influences, conceptual mapping, and written position essays which reflected the transitional process which students were experiencing. The qualitative emphasis on process and meanings of how people make sense of their experiences and meaning constructs provided the descriptive narrative of the learner's transformative experiences. The phases of perspective transformation include; a distorting dilemma, self-examination with feelings of shame or guilt, critical assessment of assumptions, recognition of one's own discontent, disclosure to others, exploration for new roles, relationships, action, planning a course of action, acquisition of knowledge and skills, provisional trying of new roles, building competence and self-confidence in new roles, and reintegration of new perspectives into one's lifestyle. The descriptive narratives of students' written reflections of their transformative experiences indicated individual development within the transformative process. The phases of the transformative process are somewhat linear, however, each students' development has its' own unique time frame. The research also suggests that perspective transformation is contextual depending on the students' experience with different content areas of the course. For example, some students may be very homophobic and yet be very inclusive about issues of racism.

Narrative examples of students transformative experiences during the graduate course are illustrated below. They speak to issues of racism, the learning process, and an overall reflection of their development with diversity issues.

"White privilege"-- "I find myself becoming very defensive. I am a white woman and the speaker made me feel the need to apologize. However, after listening and thinking about it awhile, the message I realized was the need not to feel superior or apologetic my being born white. Many of the issues brought concerning social inequity left me with an entirely new outlook. I have to admit, I did not agree or even like some of the points, however, they were probably issues I have voluntarily suppressed for whatever reasons. I think it is OK that my perceptions are being challenged."

"A total change of perspective has not occurred with me in relations to racism. I believe that what is happening to minorities is not right but I'm not sure how the total correction of things will affect me. My discomfort now is a combination of feeling uncomfortable with the racist things done against minorities and the uncomfortable feeling of how the resolution of equity is going to affect me. Through the acknowledgement of reflective learning and my individual growth, I believe that I will succeed in finding the resting place concerning racism. "

"I found that addressing not only "what" I've learned but "how" I learned it to be more rewarding."

"When a person has a change in cultural attitudes (transformation), the problem is not over. Transformation is a process that continues throughout a persons lifetime. By being a reflective learner, I can strengthen and develop as a human being."

"My action is really the reward of a better understanding of discrimination and the interaction I see between power and equity. I need to verbalize and act on my new knowledge and understanding. Reflective thinking on the issues has helped me. My challenge is to challenge others. Talking about transition has allowed me to put my thought into words as I reflect on the perspectives which I have been exposed. Thanks for the experience."

"Now with class almost over, I can reflect on the many weeks we spent together. Not only was I introduced to many diverse issues, but I also developed new perspectives. I learned more about myself. I have never had to actually challenge my beliefs but this class encouraged me to look at myself and where my attitudes come from. I hate to admit this, but I did enjoy keeping a journal. Had I never taken this class, I would have deprived myself of all the fascinating treasures I found within myself."

"The class encouraged me to confront the issue of how we get from "I" to "We" in our diverse society. Transformative learning may never be a settled destination, but it ought to be a way of life, however, profound and perplexing. As Henry James said, "deep experience is never peaceful."

"You must be willing to look. There is poverty, unequal pay, sexism, racism, etc. If I wasn't aware of it before this class, I am now. I guess I was aware of it, but managed to push the awareness deep enough so that it didn't bother me most of the time. That is not possible now."

These narrative examples illustrate the perspective transformation process which begins with "Self" and moves through the bounded conditions of the individual to include perspectives of other persons and cultures that may define problems in fundamentally different ways. The emergent outcomes of this instructional model; visibility, awareness, understanding, empathy, new meaning schemes, and resulting with new behaviors and actions, implies the significance of dialectical thinking to the achievement of perpspective transformation. The interactive process of establishing MCE content knowledge, providing critical thinking opportunities, challenging attitudes and beliefs, participating in cultural experiences, and allowing oneself to disclose through dialogue and journal writing provide a reflective opportunity for transformative learning to occur.

The narratives demonstrate the shift from one perspective to another, which is the outcome of reflection. Reflective learning becomes a key element in learning from an experience. The students seem aware of the reflective process and sensitive to their new meaning constructs. They mention inner discomfort, clarify their concerns, appear open to new information and seem willing to integrate the new perspectives into future activities.

This study suggests that this transformation MCE model has potential for an effective instructional strategy with adult education learners. It is significant to point out that a perspective culture transformation would not be an anticipated goal of short term workshop or seminar because of the lack of time spent on the reflective process necessary when struggling with emotional and value embedded issues.

IMPLICATIONS FOR THE MODEL

This transformative MCE instructional model suggests that systematic inquiry and transformative learning should play a significant role in educational design for multicultural learning. The social interaction emphasis focuses on helping learners interpret ways they and others construct meanings. The scope of this strategy is to help students enhance their understanding of and sensitivity to the way other cultures, ethnic groups and individuals anticipate, perceive, think and feel. Perspective transformation is central to helping students identify real problems involved in cultural relationships rooted in personal values, attitudes, and beliefs. Encouraging learners to challenge and transform meaning perspectives raises serious ethical questions. Practitioners must consider the importance of their knowledge and skill when facilitating transformative learning.

This instructional model provides opportunities for extensive research on roads less traveled in multicultural education curriculum development. Further research may include studies on cultural disequilibrium,

resistance, transfer of transitional learning to cultural behavior changes, the relevance of journal writing to transitional learning, critical questioning, and cognitive cultural development.

In conclusion the importance of modeling dialectical thinking and reflective practice within multicultural instruction is intended to raise consciousness, explore internalized attitudes and behaviors surrounding issues of diversity. The significance of this work suggests a tough-minded appraisal of the very real difficulties of personal and professional ethics underlying the social-economic biases that reflect and confirm the training of educators who become agents of social change within our educational systems. It is essential that scholars and practitioners face up to the moral and ethical dilemmas which this transformative model presents in order to facilitate intellectual and moral equilibrium which includes cognitive, rational, intuitive and emotional responses toward the turbulent contexts of multicultural education. The moral person, according to John Dewey,(1935) "must have the power to stand up and count for something in the actual conflicts of life". Is not our individual and collective morality in question as we travel the divergent paths of teaching and learning in a pluralistic society?

It is my intent that the work presented in this paper contribute to the educational commitment that every individual have intrinsic worth, and that educational practices emphasize the socially constructed relationships within the multiple perspectives of our diverse society by implementing dialectical teaching and learning in multicultural education. The instructor as mentor and model increases the possibility for transformative learning to affect the beliefs, attitudes, opinions, and emotional reactions that constitute our cultural meaning schemes and the consequences of our actions. Understanding, acceptance, and commitment to a road less traveled provides the motivation for this research. Implementing this transformative MCE model may widen the divergent cultural path and allow us all to travel with inclusive vision and direction.

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DEFINING SCHOLARSHIP: IMPLICATIONS FOR ADULT EDUCATION

Larry E. Miller and Lorilee R. Sandmann

ABSTRACT

Current thinkers define scholarship as multidimensional; that is scholarship can be exhibited through research, teaching and outreach activities. Adult educators need to consider the dimensions of scholarship as they continue to evolve a definition of excellence for the discipline.

INTRODUCTION

Many colleges and universities are wrestling with the issue of what defines "scholarship." There are those who argue that scholarship involves discovering or creating new knowledge, or at least synthesizing knowledge in a new way. From this perspective scholarship is generally synonymous with research. Further, the traditions of the hard, basic sciences helped provide this definition with an orientation toward positivistic lines of inquiry. However, even within the category of evidencing research as scholarship, there are other ways of knowing. The researchers in qualitative research, phenomenology, ethnography, single subject research, grounded theory, case study methods, historical, philosophical, interpretative or critical science would quickly verify this contention. In the arts, performances and exhibits may illustrate scholarship. In architecture, the unique design or critique might evidence scholarship. Might one exhibit scholarship through teaching and service as well?

What definitional standards for scholarship will adult educators encounter in the future? What are the implications for a practice-based field such as adult education? As scholarship is redefined in the academy, this paper begins to explore the implications for the development of adult education theory and practice.

CURRENT MODELS OF SCHOLARSHIP

Webster's New World Dictionary definitions of "scholar", "scholarly" and "scholarship" include terms such as "specialist in a particular branch of learning"; "having or showing much knowledge, accuracy and critical ability"; and "the systematic knowledge of a learned person, exhibiting accuracy, critical ability and thoroughness" (Warmbrod, 1991). Academic scholarship, by these definitions, could then be exhibited not only through research but also through teaching and service activities.

Many current thinkers are defining scholarship as multidimensional. Boyer (1990), for example, maintains that work in the professorate has four separate but overlapping dimensions: the scholarship of discovery, the scholarship of integration; the scholarship of application; and the scholarship of teaching. Discovery entails adding new knowledge through research. Integration involves employing higher level cognitive functions to construct "meaning" from isolated facts, concepts and constructs. Application occurs when knowledge is "responsibly applied to consequential problems" (Boyer, 1990), it is distinctly different from the usual service activities documented in curriculum vitae--e.g., serving on committees, advising organizations, and contributing to departmental activities.

Scholarship through teaching emphasizes the acquisition of knowledge that can be acquired only by professors who are informed and intellectually engaged teachers (Warmbrod, 1993a). Shulman (1986) defines teaching not only as the transmitting of knowledge but also as the transforming and extending of knowledge, while Warmbrod (1993a) and other writers note that an effective way to learn is to teach.

Rice and Richlin (1993) propose that these four views of scholarship, scholarship as discovery, integration, application and teaching, are discrete types but form a conceptual whole that is every bit as important as the parts. They further note that in the redefinition of scholarship the goal is not to elevate practice above research and theory but that the "art" of practice has been so mystified that it has often been summarily dismissed; however, it should be viewed on an even plane.

In a literal sense then, scholarship includes those things which scholars do: they teach, they research, and they serve their discipline/professions, the university and society. However, teaching is not always scholarly, some is routine and nonreflective. Similarly, there is research which is too mechanical to be called scholarship and there is service which has more to do with departmental "housekeeping" than with knowledge building.

What makes an activity scholarly? A Michigan State University report on university outreach (1993:2) offers defining parameters:

> The essence of scholarship is the thoughtful creation, interpretation, communication or use of knowledge that is based in the ideas and methods of recognized disciplines, professions, and interdisciplinary fields. What qualifies an activity as "scholarship" is that it is deeply informed by accumulating knowledge in some field, that the knowledge is skillfully interpreted and deployed, and that the activity is carried out with intelligent openness to new information, debate and criticism.

Therefore, scholarship, deals with important and significant topics, ideas and concerns; the intellectual substance--the content--with which scholars deal is important, significant, vitally critical to the discipline or area of specialization. Scholars do not deal with trivia and unimportant matters. Scholars are not satisfied with conventional wisdom; scholarship is not achieved or bestowed by self-proclamation, but by one's peers (Warnbrod, 1993; 1993a). Miller (1991) identifies scholarship and substance as major concerns with which a profession must be concerned. "The teaching-research polarity sets intellectual substance and educational process at odds. And not only are disciplinary content and teaching methods separated, they also are hierarchically arranged so that research is always viewed as superior to teaching" (Rice & Richlin, 1993). However, must not teaching, too, deal with substantive, scholarly content? Scholarship is not discrete and exclusively the province of research but includes all of the Boyer categories.

ADULT EDUCATION SCHOLARSHIP

If discovery, integration, application and teaching of knowledge are central to the mission of higher education and if they are often categorized as research, service and teaching, what is the significance for adult education? A dialogue concerning the dimensions of scholarship and the implications for the adult education profession is needed. As starters, adult education academicians and practitioners might consider the following questions:

- How can adult educators--again, both academicians and practitioners--demonstrate scholarship through research, service and teaching? What are the ways in which this is typically done?
- What kinds of evidence qualifies such activities as scholarly? Does a contribution in only one of the areas of discovery, integration, application and teaching suffice for person to be declared a scholar? Must scholars in adult education contribute to all four dimensions?
- How do we assure scholarly standards?
- How do we meet the responsibilities of being a professional and scholar while moving the profession "down the road to knowing" (Miller, 1993) and, thereby developing a theoretical basis for the discipline which extends beyond conventional wisdom and practice?
- How can we assure that new entrants to the field are professionally socialized to contribute to scholarship in adult education as well as practice? How do we go about preparing future scholarly practitioners capable of operating in arenas with new definitions of scholarship?
- Finally, who decides what is "scholarship," what is "scholarly," and who is a "scholar"?

These and related questions warrant wide discussion. Ways of thinking about just two of these questions will be elaborated here.

EVIDENCE OF ADULT EDUCATION SCHOLARSHIP

A recent University of Wisconsin report *The Wisconsin Idea and Outreach* (1994) proposes categories of evidence that would help document the scholarly nature of activities in the outreach research, teaching and service functions. These expanded categories of evidence, intended to be suggestive rather than exhaustive, might prove useful to adult, community and continuing educators. The categories also offer possible measures of quality for the field of adult education to consider.

The report suggests that evidence of outreach research might include: (1) publications and presentations (books, monographs, chapters, articles, bulletins, reports, delivery via instructional technologies) including those for practitioners and the public; (2) internal and external review of research process, outcomes and impact; (3) approval of research proposal for external funding; (4) awards, honors, citations for creative works, and applied research; (5) evidence of impact of scholarship or practice of field; (6) evaluation of innovative clinical procedures; and (7) evidence of impact on public/private policy makers.

Suggestions to document outreach teaching include: (1) observation reports by colleagues, peers and teaching assistants; (2) assessments by students, participants, trainees, clients; (3) enrollment demand by clientele; (4) syllabi, teaching plans, materials, development of new courses; (5) reflection on learning outcomes by students, employers, etc. Changes in professional practice; and (6) approval of funding for curriculum development.

And, evidence of outreach service might include: (1) reports of benefits to recipients; (2) new ideas gained that have an impact on research, teaching agenda; (3) evidence of change in public policy; and (4) reports, evaluations of service.

When these scholarly activities act in combination, suggested evidence include: (1) national or international recognition of outreach contribution, by leaders (both academicians and practitioners) in the field; (2) manifest demand for assistance; (3) detailed assessment of outcomes; and (4) national/international awards of recognition by associations in the field.

THE SCHOLARLY PRACTITIONER

Checkoway writes (1991:224):

> Quality research, teaching and service are emerging as complementary activities in many professions and fields. The new vision is one in which excellence in one activity is increasingly inseparable from other activities in accordance with the best traditions and highest standards of the academic community.

The emerging conceptualization of scholarship can provide a renaissance to the practice-based field of adult education where categories are often blurred between research, teaching and service. The challenge to the field is to further develop and support academicians and practitioners as reflective or scholarly practitioners (Sandmann, 1994). Such scholarly practitioners will need to have both the inclination and the well-honed skills in knowledge generation, application and transmission.

The current multidimensional definition of scholarship can energize and discipline the field of adult, continuing and community education. Hopefully this paper will stimulate a fuller and vigorous discussion on the implications of such a conceptualization for adult education theory and practice and on the role of adult education in the continued shaping of the definition of scholarship.

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EXPLORING THE VOCATIONAL INTENT OF PARTICIPANTS IN ADULT COMMUNITY EDUCATION

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This study sought to answer a number of questions concerning vocational intent and adult community education in terms of participants, course areas, motives, and outcomes. These questions were addressed through a questionnaire survey of learners. In addition to providing much demographic and other descriptive information, data detailing interactions between pairs of variables of interest were generated.

INTRODUCTION

This study forms part of a larger study commissioned by the state Board of Adult and Community Education (BACE). and focused on BACE funded providers—24 Evening and Community Colleges, 4 Workers' Educational Associations (WEA) and 44 Community Adult Education Centres (CAEC).

The purpose of this larger study was twofold:

- to develop a definition of vocational education and training (VET) appropriate for use in the adult and community (ACE) sector;

- to determine the extent of VET in terms of this definition within the ACE sector in the state of New South Wales (NSW).

The definitional task was addressed by documenting and synthesising a range of definitions, views and concerns. These were drawn from three sources: the literature; a questionnaire survey completed by senior practitioners; and a focus group seminar. This process resulted in the following working definition which was used in the remainder of the study.

VET is educational activity that promotes the acquisition of competence—in terms of knowledge skills, understandings, attitudes and values—which contributes to productive work.

The second major task, to document the extent of VET in the ACE sector, was approached again using three main sources of data—the curriculum of ACE; the providers; and the learners. A content analysis of the course offerings of the ACE sector was completed. A telephone interview survey of providers was conducted. A questionnaire survey of learners' motives for enrolling in ACE courses was undertaken. The overall research strategy was based on gaining a fuller understanding of these three components in the ACE equation. This paper focuses on the last of these components—the perceptions of the learners.

PURPOSE

Who participates in adult education, what are they learning, and what are their motives? These have always been key questions for the field of adult education. The development of the questionnaire instrument took into account the long history of participation studies in the US (Courtney, 1992), recent UK studies (Sargent, 1991; McGivney, 1992) and the few Australian studies including the pioneering "Nation of Learning" study (Evans, 1988). The purpose of the survey was to document the extent of vocational motives in undertaking adult community education courses and the prevalence of vocational outcomes. The following questions guided its development. Just who does participate? If ACE can be said to have a vocational dimension, for whom is it vocational? Just what kinds of courses are taken? With what outcomes?

METHODOLOGY

INSTRUMENT:

The major considerations in designing the questionnaire instrument were brevity, ease of completion, and a strict focus on ACE learners—their characteristics, their course taking history, their motives, and the outcomes they attribute to participation. Versions of the draft were trialled with groups of learners and its evolving format discussed with experienced adult educators.

SAMPLE:

A survey of this kind posed special problems. How would it adequately represent the large population of participants? The balance of their enrolments between city and country centres? Their distribution across the various areas of study? A one third proportional sample of providers was used. There were thus 5 large, 6 medium and 14 small providers. This was a large enough sample of BACE funded providers to represent a variety of localities and to maintain the balance between city and country. A sample size of about 2500 participants was determined to be large enough for statistical purposes. Allowing for about 10 students per class, 250 classes were sampled—25 per large provider (125 classes), 15 per medium (90 classes) and 3 per small (42 classes). The classes were sampled at each centre so as to ensure that they proportionately represented the 14 ACE areas of study.

DATA ANALYSIS:

As well as generating descriptive statistics and simple contingency tables, log linear modelling using the statistical package GLIM was used to analyse the data generated. Loglinear models seek to explain the number of observations at each combination of variables and to describe the pattern of association between them.

RESULTS

The results reported below were obtained from 2135 learners enrolled in ACE classes in February, 1993. This represents a return rate on the targeted sample (c.2530) of more than 83%. Moreover, the distribution of responses between city and country, among the various sized providers and across the content areas was very congruent with the sampling model developed for the study.

PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS:

This sample of ACE learners appears to be systematically different to the general NSW population in a number of respects: more than 75% were female; they were relatively younger; less that 6.5% were unemployed; more than 75% had completed some form of post-school qualification; and only 10% were from a non English speaking background.

MOTIVES AND OUTCOMES:

The questionnaire permitted learners to select several motives from a list and they were also asked to indicate their primary motive for participating (See Table 1). While about 25% of respondents gave a clearly vocational reason, in terms of the definition adopted for this study, as their primary motive for enrolling, more than 60% gave a primary motive which must be viewed as at least partially vocational. When multiple motives were taken into account, more than 90% reported a vocational reason, as defined above, as one of their motives. Of course, this general picture was qualified when other factors, particularly area of study and age of participant, were taken into account. In regard to the outcomes of previous classes taken the responses were very similar—about 60% reported an at least partial vocational outcome and 25% reported a clearly vocational outcome.

Table 1: Motives for participation in present course

Percentage of respondents who indicated that this was		
Response	the Primary Motive	A Motive
Become better informed/skilled person	18.1	56.2
Prepare for a new job	9.7	22.0
For my current job	8.7	23.0
Spend spare time more enjoyably	15.5	49.0
Meet new people	1.8	28.8
Improve household work skills	5.4	14.4
Prepare for other studies	2.2	11.2
Assist with community activities	0.6	6.4
Develop personal skills and talents	38.0	70.8

NOTE: There were 2047 respondents who indicated an average of 2.8 motives as relevant.

PARTICIPATION:

Almost half of all learners reported having taken at least one other course in the last year, while almost a quarter were concurrently enrolled in another course. More than three quarters indicated that they intended in enrolling in a further course in the near future. In terms of total participation, less than one quarter reported having taken no previous ACE classes while a few (about 2%) reported having taken ten or more courses in the last five years. The bulk of participants, about 70%, reported having taken between one to five courses in that period.

PROVIDERS:

Even though all respondents were then enrolled in courses offered by ACE providers, many of them had had experiences across the range of post school providers. Of those who had taken a course in the previous year or so—68.3% reported that course had been provided by an ACE centre, 17.3% a TAFE college, 7% a university, and 7.4% other, largely private, providers.

COURSE AREAS:

The sampling model adopted for the study was based upon proportional sampling of course areas therefore responses received did not measure the relative popularity of various course areas. However, responses did show some continuity in terms of course areas previously and concurrently studied and in terms of future course intentions.

INTERACTIONS:

The questionnaire was designed to provide clear descriptions of learner, course and provider parameters in ACE participation. Further analysis was used to determine which variables had a significant effect on a particular variable of interest. Loglinear modelling was used to examine these interaction effects and to answer questions of interest. Such an analysis produced the following patterns of association between variable of interest.

- Age, sex and employment had a significant effect on subject area studied. Age and sex had an interactive effect. The chances of taking an Arts course were highest for female, old, not employed people. The chances of taking a Business course were highest for male, young, not employed people.

- Age and employment status significantly effected motive for participation individually and in interaction. Self development was a uniformly important motive for all ages and employment categories. Work was most likely to be given a motive by the young, least likely by the older, not employed. Social motives were most likely for the older not employed.

- About half of the learners who gave work as their primary motives were enrolled in Business courses. Half of those who gave self development as their primary motive were enrolled in the Arts course. Two thirds of those who gave home or community motives were enrolled in Services courses.

- Males had a lower probability than females of having done a previous course. Older people had a higher probability of having done a previous course, so had the more qualified. The most likely were older qualified females. The probability of the past course being the same as the present course was highest for older people in Arts.

- Age and qualifications were the only variables with a significant effect on previous provider. More than 70% of learners who had done previous courses had an ACE centre as the past provider. This association decreased with higher levels of previous qualifications and increased with the age of the learner.

CONCLUSIONS

There a number of conclusions which can be drawn from the analysis of the results.

- Several motives are at work for most participants. While vocational motives operate in courses which are ostensibly non vocational, non vocational motives operate even when courses are narrowly vocational in intent.

- ACE is more likely to be continuing or complementary than compensatory. Those who pursue adut education opportunities are not necessarily making up for earlier educational deficiencies.

- ACE is drawing its students from the majority component of the NSW population. Males, the unemployed, the less educated, older people, the non English speaker are under represented.

- Motives for participation depend largely on course area and age. More than 50% of participants in Business courses report a vocational motive, moreover these respondents are more likely to be younger. More than 50% of participants in Arts courses report a self development motive, moreover these respondents are likely to be older.

- Participants will generally take more than one course in the sector. They have taken adult education courses in the past and expect to take more courses in the future.

IMPLICATIONS

Learners, it appears, are motivated by vocational needs in undertaking ACE courses. Governments are increasingly concerned to see that their VET goals are implemented across all sectors of education. In meeting these needs and in implementing these goals, ACE providers face a number of dilemmas—involving issues such as funding, recognition, accreditation, independence, and values. Those ACE providers that have been successful in winning competitive contracts to provide VET appear to have benefited. However, this has been at some cost—the time invested in the tendering process, the additional administrative demands created, and the over stretching of limited infrastructure. While it is tempting to further extend its vocational role to win great recognition for ACE

providers, will they lose their uniqueness and become just like other more formal providers? A rush to accreditation could threaten the very features of ACE which make it the 'lubricant' of the VET process—accessibility, responsiveness, and cost effectiveness. Yet without some accreditation, ACE will not be linked effectively into the national training structure. ACE providers stress their accountability as largely self funding community managed organisations. But can they be a part of the national VET without accepting greater accountability to bureaucratic structures. Finally, the expansion in the demand for VET type courses is perceived by many as a threat to broadly held adult education values. Some see traditional liberal adult education as being devalued by this vocational emphasis. It is in the resolution of these dilemmas that the new face of ACE in NSW will be shaped.

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EFFECTS OF INSERVICE TRAINING ON PART-TIME CONTINUING EDUCATION FACULTY

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ABSTRACT

This study examined the effects of varying lengths of inservice training on the educational orientation of part-time continuing education faculty members at a small midwestern four-year college in Missouri. The study was patterned after work done by Wegge (1991). As in the Wegge (1991) study, it was hypothesized that instructors who received inservice training in andragogy methods would utilize these techniques in their teaching.

The degree of identification with the collaborative teaching mode was measured by the Principals of Adult Learning Scale (PALS) developed by Conti. This study used a multi-variate analysis of variance to asses the relationship of the following experimental variables: hours of inservice training: years of college teaching experience; gender; and credit versus non-credit course content area. An analysis of variance was also used to detect significant differences for each PALS seven sub scores.

Unlike previous research, this study did not support the theory that inservice training which introduces and establishes collaborative teaching mode as a viable classroom teaching strategy is effective for part-time continuing education faculty members at a small four-year state college.

INTRODUCTION

The use of part-time faculty members in higher education is surrounded by controversy (Bartow, 1990; Gappa and Leslie, 1993). Despite the increase in the use of part-time faculty members in colleges and universities across the nation (NECS, 1991), little attention seems to have been paid to providing staff development initiatives that will better prepare this group of professional educators for their classroom responsibilities. Of equal importance is the need for part-time faculty members to be able to effectively teach and provide appropriate instructional activities for the large number of adult students that are returning to America's college and university campuses (Osborn, 1990). Thus this study examined one specific characteristic of the continuing education faculty members in a four year state college setting. More specifically, it built upon and sought to expand the findings of the earlier works of Carrea (1984) concerning the effects of andragogical teacher training and adult student attendance and Wegge (1991) regarding the relationship of inservice training to educational orientation of part-time instructors.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study was conducted for three reasons. First, it was designed to begin to develop findings that would close the gap that exists in the literature relative to the effectiveness of inservice training programs and their relationship to the teaching styles of part-time continuing education faculty

members in four year state college setting. Secondly, it sought to test the findings of the works of Wegge (1991) and Carrea (1984) and determine whether or not their results held true in light of different experimental variables and conditions. Finally, it was undertaken in order to provide further information that could be used by the continuing education practitioner in developing effective inservice programs for part-time faculty members who teach in settings similar to the one in which this research was conducted.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study investigated the following research questions:

1) Does the educational orientation of part-time continuing education faculty members who receive varying lengths of inservice training in andragogy differ significantly from those who do not receive this training?

2) Does the educational orientation of part-time continuing education faculty members who teach credit versus non credit courses and receive inservice training in andragogy differ significantly?

3) Are there significant differences in the educational orientation of part-time continuing education faculty members who receive inservice training when compared by gender?

4) Are there significant differences in the educational orientation among part-time continuing education faculty members who receive inservice training when compared by years of college teaching experience?

METHODOLOGY

The population for this study consisted of all 163 part-time continuing education faculty members employed at a four year state college in western Missouri in the 1993 fall semester. Of this research population, 86 faculty members constituted this study's research sample. The sample was divided into three groups, one which received no training; a second group which received three hours of training which focused upon the principals of andragogy; and a third group which received three additional hours of training. Three hours of training was conducted at the beginning of the semester for both the second and third groups and three hours more four weeks later only for the third group. One week prior to the end of the semester, all participants completed the Principals of Adult Learning Scale (PALS), (Conti, 1978). A multi-variate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was then used to explore the overall main effects and interactions of the independent variables of gender, college teaching experience, hours of training and course focus (credit or non credit) by scores on each of the seven PALS factors. Each of the seven factors of PALS was also analyzed as were the second order interactions.

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

This study found the following:

1) Significant differences were found in PALS scores when examined by levels of training. Ironically, scores on the PALS survey for those who received training in andragogy did not improve. In fact, results indicated that the mean scores for the training groups actually decreased.

2) No significant differences were found when the data were examined by the credit vs. non credit course variable.

3) No significant differences were found when the data were examined by the gender variable. However, significant interaction did occur when gender was combined with the college teaching experience.

4) Significance was also found as an interaction effect of college teaching experience, hours of training gender and course content area.

APPLICATION TO PRACTICE

This research provides additional information for the continuing education administrator to use in developing inservice and faculty development programs for part-time continuing education faculty members. First, it offers clear information and recommendations for further practice relative to inservice and faculty development programs in continuing education settings. Secondly, it provides a model for use in conducting practice and applied based research about the teaching orientation of part-time faculty members. Thirdly, it describes a number of practice related issues that merit further research related to teaching and learning of adult students.

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PRACTITIONER PERCEPTIONS OF SUCCESS AND FAILURE IN THE PLANNING OF ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAMS

Charles R. Oaklief

ABSTRACT

This qualitative study determined the perceptions of characteristics and contributing factors toward success or failure of adult education programs held by practitioners in a variety of organizations. The inquiry identified new knowledge for planners of adult and workplace education by applying a paradigm for observing, comparing, and reflecting on practitioner perceptions of program success and failure as reported by Lewis and Dunlop (1991). Three hundred adult educators responsible for the program planing function in a variety of organizations and programs were interviewed regarding their perceptions of their own successful and unsuccessful programs. The study participants exhibited a high level of interest, particularly during the process of determining those factors and conditions which contributed to program success or failure. The interviews revealed findings not reported in earlier research on program failure. Findings included consideration for an interactive, empowered, and hands-on learning environment; the opportunity for networking and socializing; the evidence of follow-up, implementation and impact of the learning; effective advertising and promotion; and sequencing of instruction. Program success or failure was tied to the subject matter, the expertise and skill of instructors, and the nature of the program planning process.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND SAMPLE

The need for continued inquiry in this area is valuable due to the fact that educational program and curriculum development is considered to be one of the primary areas of practice in adult education (Blackburn, 1984; Boone, 1992; Nadler, 1984) and it was reported to be the function performed by adult educators which requires the larger part of their professional time (Oaklief, 1990).

The research design was exploratory and descriptive in nature as the purpose was to identify and describe the characteristics and contributing factors which adult educators perceived as contributing to the success or failure of their educational programs. The sample was selected to represent a broad array of organizations and programs providing education to adults. Personal interviews were conducted with three hundred adult education practitioners in the State of Kansas. The sample was selected for its general diversity and geographic proximity which included both rural and urban populations. The individual subjects selected for interview were personally involved in the process of planning programs for adults representing larger organizations such as the Cooperative Extension Service, community colleges, technical and vocational schools, university continuing education divisions, and business and industry training departments plus smaller community adult education programs, continuing professional education providers, and volunteer programs.

DATA COLLECTION

The 300 interviews were conducted by trained observers over a period of five months beginning in August 1993. They were completed at the practitioners' place of business and lasted for approximately one hour. Each interview was conducted under similar guidelines and protocol to improve the quality and significance of the information solicited and to develop an explanatory paradigm in order to facilitate synthesis over those characteristics and contributing factors which associated with adult education program success or failure.

RESPONSE OF THE INTERVIEWEES TO THE QUESTIONS

Although all of the adult educators contacted did agree to participate in the interview process, it is noted that some respondents were less than enthusiastic about discussing certain aspects of their educational programming. This was particularly true of those programs perceived to be unsuccessful. It would appear normal for the interviewees to share ideas regarding their successful education programs and be less likely to talk about their failures.

Many interviewees tended to view program success and failure from a singular view in that very limited analysis was given to the possibility that multiple factors or the interaction of factors may have contributed to success or nonsuccess. Respondents were most likely to identify their evaluation of a program by naming one characteristics or contributing factor regarding success or failure. It was only after considerable time into the interviews that respondents began to visualize and identify with the complexity of factors which may have affected their program outcomes.

Most of the practitioners enjoyed discussing the programs and speculating on those factors which contributed to either success or failure. A post interview discussion with the interviewers (trained observers) revealed the collective opinion that most practitioners give vary little time to in-depth discussion and analysis of their programs with colleagues or others that have a vested interest in program outcomes. Since the practitioners were limited to identifying and discussing only one program perceived to be the most successful and one perceived to be unsuccessful, the response on program characteristics numbered about the same. However, responses increased dramatically when contributing factors associated with either successful or unsuccessful programs were pursued. This suggests that the identification of a program's success or nonsuccess is more straight forward and expeditious than that which is found in the process of determining the contributing factors for the successful and non successful categories.

RESEARCH FINDINGS

Practitioners perceived the characteristics of highly successful programs and highly unsuccessful programs as opposites. For example, the response "Participants were satisfied" was reported in perceptions of highly successful programs and the response "Participants were not satisfied" was reported in perceptions of highly unsuccessful programs. This "flip side" response by participants was not as evident when discussing observations of contributing factors to either successful or unsuccessful programs. The interviewers were impressed with the broad variety of characteristics and contributing factors which practitioners identified with the success or failure of their adult education programming.

CHARACTERISTICS OF HIGHLY SUCCESSFUL PROGRAMS

Practitioners identified thirteen areas which described highly successful programs in adult education. These suggest that perceptions of adult education programming reflect a mix of qualitative and quantitative factors. The factors mentioned most often concerned the "bottom line" and included considerations of enrollment, participant involvement, and overall satisfaction.
More specifically, respondents reported highly successful programs with the following characteristics: (1. "Participants were satisfied," (2. "High demand for the program," (3. "High level of participant involvement," (4. "Produced delayed/secondary benefits for participants," and (5. "Demand to repeat the program."

CONTRIBUTING FACTORS TO HIGHLY SUCCESSFUL PROGRAMS

The 672 responses were placed into 40 categories which identified those factors practitioners perceived as contributing to highly successful programs. Practitioners viewed success in terms of specific program provisions. The primary factors contributing to highly successful programs by practitioners concerned the basic provisions. (1. appropriate subject matter and (2. effective

instruction. Subject matter perceived as contributing to successful programs was described as timely, relevant, innovative, and programs which met the participants' needs. Effective instruction was defined by skill in setting interactive, practical, and empowering class environments. Although overlap existed in the responses which made interpretation of findings difficult, an obvious range of factors characterizing success exists in the minds of practicing adult educators.

Overall findings revealed that most responses relate to three broad categories which portrayed successful programs. These include (1. the programs' subject matter, (2. the expertise and skill of instructors, and (3. the nature of the program planning process. These represent the majority of responses, however, it may not be said that there impact on adult education programs is not mutually exclusive due to the fact that perceptions of success or failure appear to be an interaction of a variety of variables operating at any given time and place.

CHARACTERISTICS OF HIGHLY UNSUCCESSFUL PROGRAMS

Unsuccessful programs were perceived to be lacking in those areas which respondents identified with successful programs. The most prevalent characteristics included low enrollments, lack of learner participation, and dissatisfaction of participants. Participants also identified the more obvious characteristics including "high drop out rates," "desired learning did not occur," and "planners and instructors not satisfied with the program." If a program was canceled or otherwise not offered, it was perceived to be unsuccessful. The responses again reflected the possible combination and interaction of factors which practitioners perceived to be characteristic of unsuccessful programs.

CONTRIBUTING FACTORS TO HIGHLY UNSUCCESSFUL PROGRAMS

The 414 responses which practitioners identified as factors contributing to program failure represented several larger and more general areas associated with adult education programming. The more prevalent of these included: (1. inappropriate or irrelevant subject matter which did not meet the needs of the participants, (2. ineffective presentation and instruction by instructors resulting in a poor learning environment, (3. inadequate program planning process and instructional design contributing to inadequate content and application, (4. inappropriate selection and mix of participants resulting in poor participant interaction and sharing of information; (5. ineffective administrative and program management which fostered poor program promotion, lack of coordination and administrative support, and (6 · inadequate arrangements with facilities, location, scheduling, and financial arrangements.

The controversial notion of mandated education for adults was reported as a negative factor in terms of its impact. Respondents indicated both "forced attendance" and "attendance not required" as reasons contributing to program failure. Although there is again some overlap in the responses, half were represented in the top ten factor areas and emphasized the importance of quality in instruction, program planning, subject matter determination, and program management functions.

COMPARISON WITH RECENT RESEARCH

This study not only supports the findings of the study by Lewis and Dunlop (1991) but it identifies several additional characteristics and contributing factors to adult education programs deemed either successful or unsuccessful by practitioners representing a broad array of adult education organizations and programs. Although the sample size of this study (n=300) was significantly larger than the Canadian study (n=32), the findings were similar in terms of overall results.

The findings reported in this study, which are not found in the recent research literature on adult education programs, are listed here for programs perceived to be successful as well as those

considered to be unsuccessful. This study identified characteristics and contributing factors not reported in earlier research, thus suggesting important considerations for the analysis and evaluation of adult education programs.

Among the thirteen perceptions of highly successful program characteristics identified by respondents there were two categories not found during the review of recent research literature. The categories were (1. "Demand to repeat the course or program," and (2. Past performance or track record of the program."

This research yielded forty categories developed from the factors which respondents identified as contributing to successful programs. Among these were seventeen areas which were not reported in similar previous studies. The five most mentioned categories contributing to highly successful programs included the following:

1. Interactive, hands-on, empowered learning environment
2. Opportunity for networking and socializing
3. Evidence of follow-up, implementation, and impact of learning
4. Thorough command of the subject by instructor
5. Principles of teaching adults were applied by instructor

Those characteristics of highly unsuccessful programs unique to this research included:

1. No feedback/reporting of results on programs
2. No follow-up, implementation, or impact of the program
3. No benefit of the program to the sponsor or the community.

All three of these categories reflect the growing interest and concern of adult educators, sponsoring agencies, and clientele in the "bottom line" as associated with cost effectiveness and impact of educational programming for adults (Curry and Wergin, 1993).

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The relatively large sample size and the open ended interviews with practitioners encouraged responses representing a broad variety of characteristics and contributing factors about the success and/or failure of adult education programming. The following ideas represent both practitioner responses and observations reported by the interviewers.

1. Post program analysis with key stakeholder can be an enjoyable and worthwhile activity.

In most cases, those conducting the interviews reported that practitioners enjoyed the discussion and revealed that it was rare for them to enter into such deliberations with their own instructional or program development team members. As expected, respondents had little difficulty in identifying their most successful programs while discussion of their program failures developed more slowly, however, most all practitioners indicated considerable value in this part of the interview.

2. Differences in the perceptions of program success and failure may occur due to the geographic area.

The characteristics of highly successful programs, as well as those perceived to be unsuccessful by practitioners interviewed in this study identified additional areas not reported in recent research on program failure from other geographic areas. The factors contributing to program success and failure yielded considerably more and different responses in different categories for both characteristics and contributing factor. It is only speculation at this point that such extensive and

diverse responses related to any programmatic situations but may be due to the considerable different in sample size and to a more limited extent how responses were grouped for analysis.

3. Practitioner perceptions of success and failure differ widely, however, consideration of the broadest possible set of possibilities appears to yield the most dynamic evaluation.

The interviewers reported that, as the data collection process was nearing the end, practitioner's interest, speculation, and analysis was developing rapidly and yielding more diverse and useful responses. Interviewers reported that in most cases, particular success or failure was tied to a set of circumstances unique to a particular program and its' environment.

4. Practitioners can benefit from an analysis of past program failures at all stages of the program evaluation process.

The findings reported in this study can prove useful not only for "end of program" evaluations but also throughout the total programming process. Certainly the findings can be applied to problems of planning, structuring, implementing, and recycling as proposed by Boyle (1981).

5. Knowledge of the characteristics of successful and unsuccessful programs and those factors which contribute to success or failure can be very helpful to adult educators responsible for program development and implementation.

A knowledge of the possibilities which can and have impacted upon the success and failure of educational programs for adults creates a valuable set of considerations for all phases of the programming process. The advantages lie in knowing "up front" of the possibilities which can confront an educational program and the alternatives which are available. The results of such actions can insure that programs have a greater chance for success.

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PUBLIC AFFAIRS LEADERSHIP—MULTI DIMENSIONAL IMPACTS OF INTENSIVE EDUCATION—INSIGHTS AND PARADOX

Boyd E. Rossing
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ABSTRACT

Rural communities have urgent needs for expanded and higher quality leadership. In many states this need is addressed by agricultural and rural leadership development programs of land grant university extension services. These programs operate without a strong research base because most scholarly attention with respect to leadership research is focused on small groups or large organizations in formal or laboratory settings.

This paper provides an analysis of findings from a study of the impact of the Wisconsin Rural Leadership Program over four successive classes totaling 118 participants. The analysis focuses on empirical validation of distinct dimensions of leadership development, on impacts of the program on those dimensions and on the relative associations of leadership capacity and behavior development, of social (demographic) factors, and of program tenure with public affairs outcomes reported by program graduates. The findings have important implications for understanding leadership development as a multi-dimensional, progressive phenomena that can be significantly influenced by intensive leadership development programs.

THE CONTEXT FOR RURAL LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

The 1980s brought a dramatic decline in the fortunes of rural America. Rural residents, for the first time in two decades, failed to make real economic gains relative to their urban counterparts (Dillman, 1988)). The plight of rural America generated a renewed interest in rural concerns and development. Garkovich (1989) is one among many authors who affirms the vital link between leadership and community vitality. Local leadership to involve citizens and to guide community action and the formation of local public policy affects the very existence of rural communities. The extension division of land grant universities provides a key resource that has been attempting to meet the need for development of rural leaders. With the support of W. K. Kellogg Foundation funding intensive rural and agricultural leadership development programs expanded to over 25 states in the 1980's. These programs provide intensive training generally involving 40-60 days spread over several seminars over two years for classes of about 30 participants. Seminar sessions address public policy issues and development of leadership process capacities.

IMPACTS OF LEADERSHIP PROGRAMS

Evaluation of the early programs documented increases by the participants in: (1) involvement in public affairs activities and organizations, (2) involvement and communication at extra-local levels, and (3) self-assessed leadership and problem solving knowledge, attitudes, and skills (Howell, 1979; Williams, 1979).

Rural leadership programs also seem to broaden participation of groups who have heretofore had less access to public decision making processes. Cook (1985) found that increases in participation of women program participants in instrumental organizations helped to overcome historic under-representation. Martin and Wilkinson (1985) found that participation in public affairs of participants of lower socioeconomic status increases more than that of persons with higher status. While these few studies offer promising results, the paucity of research on the impacts of community leadership development leaves many unanswered questions.

PURPOSE, SURVEY METHODS AND POPULATION

The purpose of this paper is to extract and analyse data from a follow-up evaluation of the Wisconsin Rural Leadership Program (Dhanakumar, Rossing and Campbell, 1993). The analysis focuses on dimensions of leadership development, program impacts and factors associated with program impacts.

In September 1993 a follow-up survey of all members of the first four classes of WRLP was conducted to study program impacts as part of a five year program review. The time since program completion ranged from 2-10 years.

Part 1 consisted of rating items which were completed by WRLP alumni leaders and returned to program staff by mail. Part 2 consisted of a set of questions to explore rural leaders' community activities through telephone and/or face-to-face interviews. Among 118 alumni, 110 responded to Part 1 (93%) and 105 completed Part 2 (89%).

The characteristics of the sample will be briefly summarized across the four classes though it is acknowledged that there was some variation from one class to another. Among participants 74% had completed college or graduate work. Males comprised 61% of the total and the average age was 36 in a range of 26-52. Eighty-two percent were married and 72% had families with children.

PHASE I: DIMENSIONS OF LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

While the research base on leadership and management is voluminous, most studies focus on leadership in large organizations or small groups in formal or laboratory settings. Very few studies consider the unique considerations of leadership in community or public settings. Furthermore, despite a proliferation of theories explaining various facets of leadership, little systematic attention has been given to conceptualizing the broad dimensions of leadership entailed in leadership development over time as it is influenced by life experience and educational opportunities.

The available evidence indicates that leadership development is a multi-dimensional phenomena. Williams (1979) in an early study of rural leadership development employed 19 scales in three categories: leadership self perception, life impact, and public affairs behavior. Modest inter-correlations among items in each category indicated each scale was tapping a separate dimension of leadership development.

The WRLP survey questionnaires were designed to assess only aspects of leadership that may have been influenced by participation in the rural leadership program. Part 1 included 44 items in five categories: capacities (e.g., pertaining to individual knowledge and attitude and behavior), understanding of public issues, perspectives on leadership and society, personal capacities (confidence and skill), organizational participation and skill, public affairs attitudes and activities, and one category (four items) pertaining to quality of life spheres (personal, professional, etc.). Part 2 which will be discussed later focused on outcomes beyond changes in individual capacities and behavior.

The items and categories were selected on the basis of the objectives of the program and anticipated areas of impact. Selective use was made of items from previous more comprehensive assessment instruments used in WRLP or other leadership evaluations. Most of the items in Part 1 used a rating scheme with which respondents could rate the program as having no, little, moderate, or major effect on the area of leadership referred to in the item. A zero in the center of the scale indicated no effect. Three points on either side of the zero enabled respondents to register increases or decreases in the leadership area. Practically speaking, the negative side of the scale was used so rarely that the scale in use became a four point 0 to 3 measure. (For this reason, one set of items, changes in perspectives on leadership and society, which did not include the negative side of the scale could easily be included in inter-correlation analysis with other items using the negative-positive scale.)

In order to determine the dimensions of leadership development represented in the items in Part 1 a factor analysis, using rotated factors, was performed. This yielded 11 factors, 10 of which were of interest to this investigation. These 10 factors fell in two sets corresponding to Williams' distinction between leadership self perception and public affairs behavior. The factors along with the number of items in each factor and the range of loadings across all items are shown in Table 1.

The factor results show that the conceptual distinctions that went into the design of the questionnaire are largely confirmed empirically. However, the number of discrete dimensions among 44 items was, perhaps, greater than expected. The primary example of a finer distinction than expected was the finding that attention to local issues and involvement in local issues inter-correlate, but are distinct from attention to and involvement in extra-local issues. And furthermore, at the extra-local level attention and involvement emerge as separate factors. Apparently the move from attention to action at the local level is direct and inter-connected whereas attention to issues at the extra-local level does not necessarily correspond to action on extra-local issues.

The finding that the ten factors cluster under leadership capacities and leadership behaviors was not surprising given such distinctions conceptually in previous research. However, this is the first direct empirical demonstration in the realm of public affairs leadership the authors are aware of.

TABLE 1
PUBLIC AFFAIRS LEADERSHIP CAPACITY AND BEHAVIOR FACTORS
PLUS CHANGES IN LEADERSHIP CAPACITIES AND BEHAVIORS
ATTRIBUTED TO LEADERSHIP PROGRAM EXPERIENCE

Factors	Number of Items	Range of Loadings	Mean Score of Items in Factor	Mean Score Rank
Leadership Capacities				
Understanding of Public Issues and Operations	6	.54-.8	2.13	1
Views on Public Issues, Leadership, and Institutions	5	.45-.66	1.96	2
Skills in Public Processes	4	.41-.68	1.83	3
Life Priorities and Confidence	4	.54-.74	1.79	5
Public Affairs Confidence	4	.53-.63	1.69	6
Leadership Behavior				
Interest and Personal Engagement in Public Issues	4	.44-.83	1.66	7
Public Affairs Attention and Action at the Local Level	2	.53-.75	1.45	8
Organizational Participation and Skills	4	.44-.89	1.16	9
Attention to Extra-Local Public Issues	3	.62-.83	1.81	4
Active Involvement in Extra-Local Public Issues	3	.60-.82	.83	10

PHASE 2: IMPACT OF WRLP ON LEADERSHIP CAPACITIES AND BEHAVIOR

Having identified several distinct capacity and behavior dimensions the next step was to ascertain the degree of program impact for each dimension. To achieve this the mean score for each item in a factor was combined to determine a mean factor score. The results are shown in Table 1.

A fairly dramatic pattern can be seen in the relative order of program impact on the leadership dimensions. With the exception of Attention to Extra-Local Public Issues, leadership capacity dimensions all received higher impact scores than the leadership behavior dimensions.

One interpretation simply attributes the relative order of impacts to the educational nature of the program. The curriculum devoted most attention to building knowledge, attitude, and skills. While participants are exhorted to apply their learning in public affairs, the program itself gives limited attention to engaging participants in planning, carrying out, or reflecting on public affairs activities.

These findings, however, also correspond somewhat to the concept of graduated leadership development. For example, Michael, et al., (1985) suggest that in the first stage of leadership development individuals acquire communication skills and technical expertise. In a second stage this knowledge and skill is developed through experience. Parallel with the development of knowledge and skill leaders also acquire or modify values, ideologies, and perspectives on public issues and increase their self awareness. Finally, in a third stage knowledge and skills are applied to public issues and public policy.

The findings presented here suggest a cumulative, progressive relationship rather than a simple sequence. Participants were asked to rate impact since beginning WRLP. It appears that even after several years the impact on capacities is greater than that on behavior. This might mean that knowledge, attitudes, and skills continue developing as participants eventually begin applying such capacities through public affairs action. Unfortunately, we did not analyze differences in leadership capacity/behavior development between groups according to the time elapsed since beginning WRLP. Such analysis might indicate whether behavioral application does tend to emerge progressively over time.

Within each category the results also may say something about developmental progression. In the leadership capacities category the order of impact moves from understanding, to views, to skills, to life priorities and confidence to public affairs confidence, on a pattern that is remarkably consistent with Michael, et al.'s perspective.

In the leadership behavior category the order moves from interest and engagement at the personal level, to attention action at the local level, to organizational participation to extra-local involvement. This pattern provides a refinement of Michael et al.'s third stage. The exception to the pattern is relatively easily explained. Attention to extra-local issues received the highest impact score in the behavior category. This result may be attributed to the strongl emphasis given to study of extra-local issues in WRLP.

PHASE 3: FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH LEADERSHIP OUTCOMES

The investigation at this point moved to a next level of analysis which brought findings from Part 2 of the survey into consideration. Part 2 focused on several items that pertained to various outcomes of leadership development that went beyond the individual capacities and behaviors in Part 1.

One category of items was comprised of six leadership outcomes. These items were all scored in a yes/no fashion. A second category consisted of items referring to attachment of participants to WRLP (WRLP value, satisfaction, etc.). Participants responded to these items using a five point rating scale from very low to very high or from not involved to major involvement. I

The purpose of the analysis was to explore the relative associations of leadership capacities/behaviors, demographic variables, and program tenure with leadership outcomes/ program attachments. To achieve this the former variables were treated as independent variables in a multiple step-wise regression analysis of associations with leadership outcomes and program attachments which were treated as dependent variables. While the regression was performed across all variables the results were interpreted separately. Due to space limitations in this paper we will focus attention only on the analysis of leadership outcomes.

Table 2 shows the regression results for leadership outcomes. Only those factors that showed statistically significant ($p<.05$) associations with leadership outcomes were listed in the table. Among leadership capacities only two factors showed significant associations. Skill in public processes correlated with four of the six leadership outcomes. Thus participants who recorded greatest gains in public process skills from WRLP also made the most active contributions to public affairs.

It is not clear whether skills gained in the program led to greater public affairs involvement or whether persons who engaged in public affairs also developed skills as a by-product. The finding is very interesting because the WRLP curriculum devotes only modest attention to strengthening public process skills. One interpretation would be that with more emphasis given to skill development the impacts on leadership behavior and correspondingly on leadership outcomes would be greater.

However, if leadership development does emerge in a progression, it would be important not to short cut attention to knowledge and attitudes while increasing attention to skills.

TABLE 2
FACTOR ASSOCIATIONS WITH LEADERSHIP OUTCOMES

	Leadership Outcomes					
	Seek Public Office	Hold Public Office	Important Local Accom-plishment	Important Extra-Local Accomp.	Involved Others	Enhance Capacities of Others
Leadership CapacitiesFactors						
Skills in Public Processes	+	+	+		+	
Public Affairs Confidence		+		+		
Leadership Behavior						
Local Public Affairs Attention/Action					+	
Attention to Extra-Local						+
Involvement in Extra-Local				+	+	
Social Factors						
Gender				+		
No. of Children	+					
Program Tenure		+				+

Public affairs confidence was another leadership capacity that showed a notable set of associations with leadership outcomes. Confidence was especially important in two areas, holding public office and extra-local accomplishments. Both of these outcomes represent significant steps beyond the familiar and comfortable for most participants. Confidence could be expected to correlate two ways. Greater confidence would support undertaking these efforts and efforts in these areas would yield greater confidence.

The lack of significant associations of the other three leadership capacities, e.g., understanding, views, and life priorities/confidence is harder to interpret. These were areas of relatively high gain from the program but do not correlate with leadership outcomes. This could mean that building these capacities alone is not sufficient to generate public affairs action. However, since these capacities provide a foundation for thoughtful, high quality action it would not be prudent to diminish curriculum emphasis too much.

The findings regarding association of leadership behaviors with leadership outcomes shed a little further light on the developmental dynamics of leadership action. The attention/involvement items showed a few significant associations with leadership outcomes, but fewer than might be expected. Also, it is difficult to meaningfully interpret the particular leadership outcomes where associations were found. Personal engagement and organizational participation showed no significant associations. This might suggest some discontinuity between behavior at these levels and behavior that has a broader public impact. It may be the case that the range of scores for leadership behavior items was too constricted to yield correlation patterns. The results of the analysis in this area offer little direction and suggest a need for further research.

The regression analysis also provided an opportunity to consider the association of social (demographic) factors with leadership outcomes in comparison to individual leadership development factors. The social factors included in the analysis were income, education, age, gender, marital status, and number of children. Some of these factors, e.g., income and education, have been shown in previous research to correlate positively with volunteer and public affairs participation as has male gender versus female gender. Studies cited earlier also indicated some tendency for participants of lower socio-economic status and of female gender to show relatively greater increases in public affairs participation following leadership development program experience.

Interestingly, in this analysis of WRLP outcomes the expected associations did not occur with one exception. Females were more likely to report extra local accomplishments than males. While this is an important finding it may be overshadowed by the absence of expected findings. Possibly WRLP is not contributing to differentially broadening participation of groups with less access to public decision-making or possibly the measures were too imprecise to show such results.

One interesting finding that had not been previewed in prior literature was the positive association between number of children and seeking public office and enhancing capacities of others. These results presumably reflect the motivation to seek public positions associated with welfare of one's children, e.g., school board, and to serve in roles that benefit one's children, e.g., 4-H leader.

The analysis of program tenure yielded mixed results. As expected, participants who had been graduated from the program for a longer period were more likely to have held public office. They were also more likely to have engaged in activities to enhance the capacities of others. This may represent a generative dimension of leadership development emerging over time with increasing leadership maturity. Surprisingly, program tenure did not correlate with citing an important public accomplishment. This result is puzzling. It implies that something other than the opportunity and experience provided by time, e.g., motivation, skill, etc., accounts for public affairs accomplishments. While that is not surprisingly one would expect that time would augment those other factors. It is also possible that a certain percentage of participants will likely achieve some important accomplishment with the first two years after program completion (the minimum period in the survey) and others will not have such results no matter what time period is considered. Since the question did not ask for the number of accomplishments, one accomplishment for a consistent proportion of participants in two years would explain the absence of a correlation.

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STRATEGIES FOR THE DESIGN AND DELIVERY OF WORKPLACE EDUCATION: PROCESSES TO INVOLVE THE WORKFORCE

Duane Schultz

ABSTRACT

Implementation processes relate to the way a work organization responds to its training and education needs. Successful workplace education programs involve broad workforce representation in the planning, development and operation of programs. The concepts of participation are discussed followed by a depiction of several approaches used to establish programs. If workers perceive they have a significant voice in the design and operation of workplace education, increased commitment to learning will result. As work organizations reorganize structures and processes to remain competitive in the global economy, participant based workplace education is an effective training strategy. Further, positive spill over effects can be demonstrated in work relations and commitments to life long learning.

INTRODUCTION

Student participation concepts continue to generate considerable research interest within adult education. Participation can be viewed from several perspectives. One definition relates to students enrolling in courses, a second extends students' roles to include making decisions about the development and implementation of programs, as well as the organizational concept of control and involvement within the workplace. This study examines these participation possibilities within adult education and describes the limits of involvement within traditional company based training programs. A model to involve the workforce is then proposed for the design and delivery of workplace education programs. The paper concludes with research and practice implications.

Merriam and Caffarella (1991) discuss participation as enrolling in adult education classes, seeking private instruction or engaging in independent learning projects. Many adult education offerings are voluntary and decisions to participate are based on learner characteristics, motivations and environmental considerations. It is assumed students interact with the instructor, materials, the context and the group in pertinent learning activities.

Jurmo (1989) extends participation definitions to incorporate student input and influences within the entire learning experience. This includes governance, staffing, evaluation and program oversight. Successful programs use student centered principles to facilitate the means and ends of learning. To nurture participatory learning experiences students are encouraged to provide input on expectations, learning styles methods and materials. Wlodkowski (1985) contends the instructor has a central role in students' participation by continually considering the learner's perspective.

At the organizational level, the concept of participation relates to control and decision making issues. For Bolman and Deal (1984) participation is a modest means to involve workers in decision making without restructuring power relations. Witte's (1980) study recognizes the challenges hourly workers face in changing workplace relations as new roles and responsibilities need to be learned. Weisbord (1987) places workforce participation and involvement as a central tenant in the transformation to new economic organizations.

Can participatory, worker centered processes and approaches be nurtured when adult education programs are designed and delivered in the workplace? The opportunity for workforce input will vary. In some organizations the workers' perspectives will be minimized by management views,

work organization structures, culture and traditions. If programs are to be successful it is incumbent on adult educators to facilitate processes and structures to maximize input by all workforce levels.

STUDENT PARTICIPATION POSSIBILITIES

There are various ways students can participate in the planning and implementation of a learning experience. Through Allen Tough's (1988? self directed learning projects adults have demonstrated considerable variation in pursuing learning goals. Self directed learners organize what needs to be learned when and are cognizant of location, timing and sequencing factors. Students may need assistance to initiate the learning project and clarify objectives.

For most adult education offerings, many of these decisions are completed in the planning stages without substantive student input. Course offerings are announced with time, location and course objectives already established. However, students and instructors can and do interject their perspectives into the learning process. Learning expectations, interests, needs and learning styles may be surveyed discussed and integrated into the learning experience.

Opportunities for input assume the instructor and students are interested and willing to provide feedback on design and implementation issues. Adult education offerings may provide involvement in structuring how learning takes place. Certain subjects such as broad based survey courses provide more flexibility than courses designed to certify specific, technical competencies.

Self paced and auto tutorial instruction as an example may provide considerable choices in the timing for study or completion time frames. At the same time there is limited input into how the learning materials are sequenced or presented to the student.

Literacy centers, academic labs and basic skills drop in centers may provide the student broad flexibility in the choice, the mode and the timing of learning experiences. Due to time constraints, a short course, workshop or seminar may limit involvement in the organization or presentation of the topical area.

Planning an adult education program includes decisions on areas of study, courses,staffing, methods, materials and support. The individuals and/or groups who underwrite offerings as well as adult educators determine program directions. Advisory committees, certification entities, business groups and policy bodies provide considerable influence as well. For students to have a voice in the program offerings adult educators need to invent input processes.

TRADITIONAL WORKPLACE EDUCATION EFFORTS

Many adult education programs seek student involvement and solicit student views. As workplace literacy and training efforts began to expand over the past five years, the perspectives of workers has often been ignored or minimized. The reasons relate to historical, structural and cultural factors.

In the traditional workplace management experts determine all aspects of production, problem solving corporate strategies and related issues. The responsibility of the hourly workforce is to carry out management orders and just perform the job as assigned. When problems occur, management staff or technical people determine the solutions. Training needs are determined by supervisory and staff personnel, not the line workers. The hierarchial organization many companies use is consistent with the historical way that work has been structured; in a machine like, compartmentalized way. Jobs are narrowly defined with specific boundaries for all positions. This has been reinforced through separation of departmental, shift and pay classifications. The workplace culture includes informal relations, values, beliefs and practices which reinforce and are mediated by structural and historical considerations.

Within this context, training programs are primarily conceptualized, planned and delivered by management and technical staff. Using technical and rational approaches, training has been framed to address specific job competencies. Often this has been carried out through informal, machine based, on the job training with an emphasis given to drill and practice. Training is therefore consistent with the needs of the workplace. Further the costs of training and a fear that other companies may pirate away highly trained hourly workers reduces the management incentive to embrace more comprehensive training.

The development and delivery of workplace education programs has been an extension of these company experiences. As the work organization is, in many cases, the paying client adult educators attempt to respond to training needs as framed by company representatives. These company and market based economic realities provide adult educators a limited framework to address the training needs articulated by the company and give rise to workplace education programs which are not reflective of worker perspectives. Basic and workplace skills are determined on an ad hoc, a priori basis, the curriculum is job specific and delivery is superimposed upon the workforce.

Traditional workplace education programs use conventional processes to superimpose their education programs on the workforce using a rational, technical approach. Training is expected to result in a highly congruent person-job fit. Management planned approaches specify testing and job specific programming to address the job skills gap for each worker. The process is based on expert knowledge and assumptions made about each worker's deficits. In turn these perceptions determine how curriculum, delivery and related program decisions are made and carried out. Consultation with the workforce is limited. Focus is on the subjects to be taught, delivered and evaluated. The assumption is that workforce relations and structures will remain static. The process is compatible with company traditions which suggest skills are gained primarily through drill and practice. Application is primarily job based while workforce contributions in planning and development are limited. Implementation processes which short circuit workforce involvement and participation result in job security anxiety, increased suspicions and a compliance attitude toward education offerings.

The basic assumptions organizations make about their people and processes used to establish learning centers reveal broader workplace issues of trust, involvement, the social relations at work and training. Who is involved and the nature of the participation influences subject matter, the mode of delivery, and the operational boundaries of the center. The problem is that many work organizations superimpose basic skills and training programs on the workforce without meaningful workforce involvement.

PARTICIPATION BASED WORKPLACE EDUCATION

What processes and structures can be encouraged to nurture workforce participation in the development and design of workplace education programs? Sarimento (1990) advocates for worker centered program development with the union and workforce centrally involved in planning and implementation processes. In contrast to rational technical approaches, implementation by the workforce uses dynamic interaction processes which can be applied in the workplace. This approach requires broad workforce representation in the program planning, implementation and operation phases.

In field work with about fifteen companies, it is our experience that a worker center participation process is effective in the planning and delivery of workplace education programs. Work organizations interested in initiating programs focus on a wide range of issues including student selection and assessment, subject areas and material, costs as well as logical issues of time, location and scheduling. Steering committees with broad representation from across the work site and a peer advisory network provide the mechanisms for input, participation and ownership.

The initial planning for participation based workplace education includes the naming of a steering committee structure with hourly, office and management representation. Discussions result in setting

steering committee roles and responsibilities for various facets of the workplace education program. The committee provides program oversight, the development of marketing and staffing strategies, recruiting and developing of peer advisors as well as student assistance in the learning center.

Opportunities for broad based worker input is encouraged in marketing the program through newsletters, briefings at various meetings and assisting with show casing the learning center. These center activities enhance workforce commitment and buyin. Consistent with this approach is the voluntary nature of participation in the center's offerings. Student study and progress is confidential. Center materials and offerings are provided with choice options. Materials are developed and selected to meet broadly based personal and organizational objectives based on student feedback and workforce surveys. Utilizing this process recognizes that the workplace education center is a component of the broader training function. Worker based planning processes may also pose risks for altering workplace structures, processes and relations.

The workplace education program planning which can include the naming of steering committee members, the peer advisor network, the choice of materials, and the staffing of the center all help influence how the center will operate. Decisions regarding enrollment, clock time issues, course offerings and job relatedness all will be decided during the early stages of implementation. The actors who will impact these decisions are an important and influential group. Issues of budgetary outlays and learning expectations by the organization as well as the individual will impact on the way instruction is organized and carried out. The center's relationship with the organizational training and development function is an important link as well to the company's strategic plan and longer term directions.

IMPLICATIONS FOR RESEARCH AND PRACTICE

New technology, global competition and quality certification standards provide the impetus to reexamine workplace structures, work processes and training requirements. As production or services demand higher quality, there is a corresponding increase in expectations for a flexible and competent workforce. Workers need a range of workplace related skills including the basics, computer literacy, social interaction and communication proficiency. Hourly workers are being asked to take on the responsibilities reserved until now for the management and technical ranks. To meet these challenges skills are needed in diverse areas such as planning, scheduling, problem solving and conflict resolution. Workplace programs are designed to train and upgrade current workers in response to changing job skill requirements. The focus is to meet basic and applied workplace skills such as math, communications, computer literacy, teamwork and problem solving.

The significance of implementation processes relate to the way any workplace responds to its training and education needs, the importance of training within the organization and the spill over effects on work relations and employee commitment to life long learning. If programs are conceptualized on faulty assumptions using ill conceived processes sound learning can not be achieved. If workers perceive they have no voice in planning and development an increased resistance to learning will be demonstrated. Non participation or minimal compliance will greet even the best intentioned adult educator.

The research literature in adult education, human resource development, organizational development, leadership, teamwork and quality of work life provide credence to workplace education models which systematically encourage significant participation and involvement of the hourly workforce. The implications of many research studies completed in adult education participation suggest the need for involvement of students in their education. Much of the research emphasizes classroom interaction or the characteristics and needs of the student. This proposal recommends a shift in attention to the planning and developmental processes used, particularly within work organizations. Education programs need to ensure that individual interests are mediated with the organizational context.

The contrasting approaches to the implementation of workplace programs provide opportunity to develop research methodologies and test the premise that factors of workforce involvement and participation enhance the success of workplace education. The theories of learning and adult education suggest that a dynamic interaction model is consistent with best practice. Field observations tend to verify the theory as well. Research into the processes and factors which execute education and training in work organizations could alter the conventional approaches now in use by many companies.

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EDUARD LINDEMAN'S CHALLENGE TO ADULT EDUCATION: PROVIDE THE TOOLS OF DEMOCRACY THROUGH FREEDOM OF EXPRESSION

Jan Thornton and James C. Fisher

ABSTRACT

References to freedom and liberty undergird Eduard Lindeman's writings and speeches. As Clark A. Chambers notes in the foreword to Elizabeth Lindeman Leonard's 1991 biography of her father, "All his life Lindeman shaped his political philosophy on the bedrock foundation of first Amendment rights. . ." (p. xix). This paper explores Lindeman's connections, direct and indirect, with the free speech movement and discusses how his beliefs in freedom and liberty are influenced by his contemporaries and shaped by the times in which he lived. Lindeman developed this philosophy through his close associations with those who valued freedom and were the leading free speech thinkers of the day, especially Roger Baldwin, founder and director of the American Civil Liberties Union; Herbert Croly; and writers in Croly's magazine, The New Republic. An examination of some of Lindeman's writings will show how his ideas connect the concepts of individual freedom, adult education and democracy and integrates these ideas into the practice of adult education.

INTRODUCTION

The field of adult education has regarded Eduard Lindeman as one of its prime movers. During the 1980s, his The Meaning of Adult Education was nominated as one of the two most important contributions to the field. His connection with John Dewey has made him a pivotal link between progressivism and adult education.

Motivated by an abiding belief in democracy, Lindeman focuses some of his writing on the interdependent relationships among adult education, democracy, and freedom, the latter a critical prerequisite for learning to occur. The questions addressed by this research include the following: What are the principal factors influencing Lindeman's beliefs about freedom and liberty? What roles do these themes assume in Lindeman's writings? How does Lindeman integrate these beliefs into adult education practice?

Lindeman's connection with the free speech movement and his advocacy in behalf of a student's individual freedom have the potential to add an important dimension not commonly considered by adult educators. His assertion that individual freedom is a critical component of the learning experience has far-reaching consequences for practice. It challenges all adult education practitioners to examine their views regarding the bounds of student initiative, interaction, compliance and conformity.

INFLUENCES UPON LINDEMAN

Lindeman's ideas about freedom were influenced by those who opposed governmental censorship in the World War I era. This period is considered to be one of the most repressive in U.S. history and is thought to have brought about the formative years of free speech advocacy in America. This section examines the free speech scholarship, judicial decisions, and journalism that influenced Lindeman upon his arrival in New York just a few years after World War I.

THE WORLD WAR I ERA

During World War I, an outburst of patriotism overtook the country creating a climate of severe intolerance for the ideas of those opposed to the war. Critics of the war included socialists, religious pacifists, German-Americans and Irish-Americans, recent Eastern European immigrants, and

isolationists (Walker, 1990, pp. 11-12). These years tested the American commitment to freedom of speech as a Red Scare permeated the country. Because of the Russian revolution, Americans became fearful of the possibility of the existence of communists and anarchists in their country. President Woodrow Wilson believed that the authority to exercise censorship was needed to maintain the public safety. This paved the way for government officials and private citizens to sweep aside free speech and due process and to introduce an assault of intolerance, repression and violence, unprecedented in U.S. history (Walker, 1990, pp. 11-12).

ROGER BALDWIN AND EDUARD LINDEMAN

Freedom of speech did survive the repressive World War I era "but only because the wartime crisis galvanized a small group of Americans into fighting for it" (Walker, 1990, p. 16). Roger Baldwin was dominant in this fight which culminated with his founding of the American Civil Liberties Union (ACLU) in 1920 and his service as its director for the next 30 years. From his first free speech meeting in St. Louis in 1912 when he led a protest against the police shutdown of Margaret Sanger's birth control lecture until the day he died, Baldwin was an indefatigable defender of individual human rights and civil liberties. Greatly influenced by Emma Goldman, the "Red Queen of Anarchy" (Lamson, 1976), Baldwin eventually broke with the social work profession after becoming horrified by the carnage of the war in Europe (Walker, 1990). The group in which he became involved began as the Civil Liberties Bureau (CLB), an offshoot of the American Union Against Militarism (AUAM) which since 1914 had led the opposition to America's entry into the war. In 1917 the CLB became the National Civil Liberties Bureau (NCLB) and by 1920, the ACLU (Walker, 1990). World War I had "nationalized the repression of unpopular ideas and institutionalized the machinery of the national security state." This brought about an organized movement to defend free speech. "The trauma of the war years exposed the First Amendment as an empty promise and galvanized this small group into the defense of free speech" (Walker, 1990, p. 29).

Lindeman and Baldwin were roommates in Greenwich Village from 1928 through 1935 (Stewart, 1987; Leonard, 1991). During this time, Lindeman came to share Baldwin's commitment to civil liberties. Lindeman became a member of the ACLU and for a time chaired the organization's committee on academic freedom. The picture that emerges of the Lindeman-Baldwin friendship was one marked by a mutual regard for individual freedom and liberty. It also was filled with fun, mutual interests (including bird watching and nature loving), humor, good-natured deprecation of each other, the excitement of Greenwich Village and the times in which they lived. Lindeman and Baldwin "blended into this bohemian counterculture readily and enthusiastically" (Leonard, 1991, pp. 87-88).

HERBERT CROLY AND EDUARD LINDEMAN

The year that the AUAM was organized, 1914, was the same year that Herbert Croly, Walter Weyl and Walter Lippmann founded The New Republic, a journal that "stood strongly against the tide" of the Red Scare. The journal condemned the mobs that disrupted socialist meetings and those who sanctioned such behavior. Among other expressions, the editors opposed the deportation of aliens and "continually hammered at the free speech issue" (Stettner, 1993, p. 137). Amid this turmoil, The New Republic became a voice for liberals and for freedom during repressive times (Forcey, 1960, p. viii), valuing the traditional liberal concern for individual rights and supporting a strong yet democratic government.

It was Croly's request to Zechariah Chafee Jr. to analyze the legal basis of the Espionage Act that started Chafee on the path to becoming one of the most influential free speech thinkers of this century. Chafee, a young Harvard law professor during World War I, became concerned about civil liberties violations in that era as he realized how tenuous was the country's commitment to tolerance. Chafee's first article on free speech -- a careful analysis of the legal basis of the Espionage Act -- appeared in the November, 1918, New Republic. His resulting 1920 book Free Speech and its 1941 revision, Free Speech in the United States, are credited as the path-breaking work in American

freedom of speech and press theory, the starting point for all discussions and debates of free speech advocates, even today (Prude, 1973; D. L. Smith, 1978). Chafee, among others, influenced U.S. Supreme Court Justice Oliver Wendell Holmes (Ragan, 1971, p. 44) (Rabban, 1981, p. 579), who put forward the free trade in ideas doctrine which stated, "the best test of truth is the power of the thought to get itself accepted in the competition of the market . . . . I think we should be eternally vigilant against attempts to check the expressions of opinions that we loathe" (Holmes in dissent in Abrams v. United States, 1919). This theory holds that all ideas should be allowed to be put forth unfettered and that eventually the ideas with merit will survive while those without merit will fall by the wayside.

Holmes also put forth his formulation of the proper legal test for a government to suppress speech: "The question in every case is whether the words used are used in such circumstances and are of such a nature as to create a clear and present danger that they will bring about the substantive evils that Congress has a right to prevent." Chafee saw Holmes' "clear and present danger" statement as the first attempt to interpret the First Amendment since the framing of the Constitution. "The concept of freedom of speech received for the first time an authoritative judicial interpretation in accord with the framers of the Constitution" (Chafee, 1941, p. 82). Chafee also became a contributor to The New Republic (D. L. Smith, 1986, pp. 80-81). In the McCarthy era during Chafee's last years, he "suffered considerable anguish," much of it due to the fact that the "unbalanced political mentality of the cold war and McCarthy era was hostile" to the balanced views Chafee had advocated for more than 40 years (D.L. Smith, 1986, p. 93).

The New Republic became a home for Lindeman's writings and founder/editor Herbert Croly became Lindeman's important and influential father-figure and mentor. As the periodical had been for Chafee four years before, The New Republic became one of Lindeman's vehicles for sharing ideas with a larger public (Leonard, 1991, p. 52). Lindeman eventually became a contributing editor to the magazine (Gessner, 1956, p. 25). In a parallel circumstance to Chafee, The New Republic published a Lindeman article in November of 1925 entitled "Adult Education," a pre-cursor to The Meaning of Adult Education in 1926.

To summarize, World War I and Red scare produced one of the most repressive times in domestic U.S. history with widespread arrests of aliens and dissenters and the prevalence of governmental censorship. Croly and The New Republic stood against this repression, and in so doing, started Chafee down the road to becoming an important free speech scholar. Chafee influenced Supreme Court Justice Holmes who put forth arguably the most important judicial free speech tests and doctrines of this century. And, during this same time, the American Civil Liberties Union was born and Baldwin began his lifelong pursuit of freedom. These men and their views, centered in New York, were in place in time to profoundly influence Lindeman.

LINDEMAN'S LOVE FOR DEMOCRACY AND FREEDOM

Lindeman's commitment to and love of democracy is well-documented. The Bill of Rights is placed on the first page of his scrapbook for 1941-1942 (Stewart, 1987, p. 49). Lindeman is "The Democratic Man" and "Democracy was the Mississippi that flowed through Lindeman's America" (Gessner, 1956, p. 10). There is a note of pride in his description of the successful track record of American democracy and freedom,

> We have a long experience in freedom and self-government – one of the longest in all history. We sometimes still think of ourselves as being a young nation, but we are now among the oldest, and certainly have had the longest period of uninterrupted freedom and self-government (Gessner, 1956, p. 321).

In a 1949 letter to University of Wisconsin Professor Max Otto, Lindeman evokes Chafee's belief in the primacy of freedom when balanced against other interests:

> Whenever I have any choice among values of which freedom is one, I instinctively choose freedom, feeling that if I have freedom I can use it for the purpose of

> pursuing the other values, and if I sacrifice freedom, where can I go? (Leonard, p. 160).

However, in an expression parallel to Chafee's belief that free speech cannot be regarded as automatic but must be the object of a concerted effort by all citizens, Lindeman worries that the American people might take freedom and liberty for granted through their apathy and lack of understanding. Writing in 1948 about the importance of citizen participation and, as he views it, the apathy on the part of the electorate that year, Lindeman laments that "only 30 per cent of America's adult citizens know what the Bill of Rights is, and of that number a large proportion entertain an erroneous conception of its meaning. . . " (Gessner, 1956, p. 109).

According to his daughter, during the last years of his life Lindeman was engaged in fighting the repressive forces centered around Senator Joseph McCarthy. She quotes Lindeman in the hospital during the last days of his life: "This is a beautiful country. Don't let McCarthy spoil it. Promise me you won't!" (Leonard, 1991, p. 187). In 1951, Lindeman decries those who were willing to abandon the Bill of Rights:

> Citizens hitherto faithful to the Bill of Rights are now willing to forsake its principles in order to combat communism. . . . We forsake our principles and thus undermine democracy in order to appease the fears which communism has instilled within us. . . . If democracies can combat totalitarianism only by becoming totalitarian, then the battle is already decided: totalitarianism has won (Gessner, 1956, p. 80).

In 1952, Lindeman was asked "Is it not sound policy to curtail certain liberties at a time of crisis and then restore these as soon as the danger is past? Isn't this precisely what President Lincoln did when he suspended the right of habeas corpus during the Civil War?" (Gessner, p. 241). Lindeman answers by first describing the times and geographic areas in which Lincoln did declare martial law and, in so doing, evokes Holmes' "clear and present danger" test. "If ever a nation was faced with a clear and present danger, it was during this fateful period of Civil War," he writes. He continues:

> Is it reasonable to argue from this fact that it is now perfectly safe to sacrifice the Bill of Rights in order to combat domestic Communism? I think not . . . . Lincoln's suspension of habeas corpus was a military act performed in the light of open rebellion. It was not an attempt to alter the basic nature of our liberties" (Gessner, 1956, p. 242).

LINDEMAN'S BELIEF THAT FREEDOM IS NECESSARY FOR EDUCATION

Lindeman believes that freedom is necessary for true education to take place so that democracy can flourish. In The Meaning of Adult Education, Lindeman writes a chapter "For Those Who Require Freedom," about liberty and its relationship to democracy. In it, he laments that the "times are not attuned for a sympathetic reception of ideas on freedom" and indicated that the public would not accept John Stuart Mill's famous essay On Liberty. "It would surely fall upon barren ground," he writes (Lindeman, 1926, p. 43). The ideas expressed in On Liberty, a pre-cursor to Holmes' free trade in ideas doctrine, support the notion that rational people will discover the truth through an exchange of ideas (Mill, p. 24).

These ideas are manifest in Lindeman's belief that discussion is "Democracy's basic method, the mechanism through which it operates." In an undated essay entitled "The Art and Practice of Discussion" (Gessner, pp. 90-93), Lindeman explains this belief and presents an eloquent re-statement of the free trade in ideas theory. Compare Holmes' statement, "The best test of truth is the power of the thought to get itself accepted in the competition of the market" with Lindeman's: "Democracy can flourish only when the air is made fresh and clean by free interchange of opinion" (p. 91). Lindeman writes,

> "Talking things over" is the only fundamental alternative for dictatorship. When the habit of discussion deteriorates a nation loses its ventilating system; henceforth issues are resolved in the dark, foul chambers of the underground (Gessner, p. 90-91).

Writing in 1935, Lindeman also juxtaposed dictatorship and democracy as he outlined his belief in education as a "social process" and discussion as one method of socializing learning. He explained that discussion is an attempt to align the learning situation with actual experience and internal feelings of the individual. "Insight appears when feelings and facts are blended; at that moment action arises as a spontaneous necessity." When the external authority prevails, totalitarianism can be the result. "When dictatorships arise, discussion ends; differences are no longer tolerated" (Brookfield, 1987, p. 45).

LINDEMAN'S BELIEF IN EDUCATION AS NECESSARY TO PRESERVE DEMOCRACY

Lindeman believes that education for adults is required to preserve democracy. "Whenever I am confronted with this question -- 'What can we do to save democracy and retain our freedom?' -- I inevitably return to the need for adult education," Lindeman writes in 1948 (Gessner, 1956, p. 109). Adults need to understand better social, economic and technological trends. "Only in this manner can a citizen keep abreast of his time.and have some knowledge of what to expect in the future" (Gessner, 1956, p. 110).

Lindeman urges adult educators to foster diversity of opinion and tolerance for all ideas, no matter how unpopular and challenges adult educators to infuse adult education opportunities with free expression in order to practice using the tools of democracy in American society. Lindeman claims that the practice of adult education is an important bastion against totalitarianism and that its practice of participatory methodologies such as group discussion engages citizens in the effort to further the democratic process. His thinking challenges adult educators at several points: 1) how to integrate freedom of expression in a learning context which may be subject-oriented; 2) how to cope with freedom of expression in a learning program whose purpose is institutional service; 3) how to contribute to the overall health of the national democracy in an adult education program whose parameters are narrowly conceived; and 4) how to preserve free speech in adult education in an era of political correctness.

LINDEMAN'S BELIEF THAT DEMOCRACY'S PRIMARY PURPOSE IS TO PROMOTE FREEDOM

"The true purpose of government is to promote the growth of freedom and thereby produce that form of inner security upon which a social order may reach stability with a minimum of force and coercion" (Chambers, 1991, p. xix, citing Lindeman from Leisure - A National Issue: Planning for the Leisure of a Democratic People, 1939, under joint sponsorship of the Association Press and the American Association for the Study of Group Work). In this, Lindeman says that constructive use of leisure time is essential for balanced personal growth and enhancement of one's power as a citizen in a democracy (pp. 23, 20). According to Chambers, Lindeman searched for ways to strengthen democracy at the grass roots against totalitarianism. He believes democracy rests ultimately on an informed citizenry actively involved in their own communities, settings in which the consent of the governed is worked out in argument and discussion leading to compromise and cooperation.

CONCLUSION

Lindeman was an integral part of an influential group of progressive thinkers whose ideas crystallized during one of the most repressive eras in U.S. civil liberties history. His association with the free speech movement in the 1920 and 1930s exerted profound influence on his commitment to individual freedom as a prerequisite to the preservation of democracy, and to democracy as foundation for the growth of freedom for a stable society. He stood with Roger Baldwin, founder of the American Civil Liberties Union, and Herbert Croly, editor of The New Republic, among others, who were part of the

intellectual ferment of the time, in defending Justice Holmes notion that "the best test of truth is the power of the thought to get itself accepted in the competition of the market." In a similar statement, Lindeman writes, "Democracy can flourish only when the air is made fresh and clean by free interchange of opinion." He believes that discussion is "democracy's basic method, the mechanism through which it operates," and that "talking things over" is the only fundamental alternative to dictatorship. His statement, "Whenever I am confronted with this question – What can we do to save democracy and retain our freedom? – I inevitably return to the need for adult education," summarizes the linkage between freedom and adult education in Lindeman's thought.

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CASE STUDIES OF VOLUNTARY CAREER TRANSITION OF COMMUNITY COLLEGE STUDENTS

By Lavona Smith Vanderveen

This was a multiple case study of voluntary career transition within an urban community college. It was an investigation of career transition for eight participants, in the age range of 35 to 45, who were purposefully selected for diversity and enrolled in two year vocational programs. It presents a cross-case analysis of how and why career changes were made and what types of assistance were needed during the transitions.

The students had regrets about waiting until mid-life to pursue "careers" and had fears about making the changes. They hoped for greater security, opportunities for service, greater personal challenges, and increased happiness. Factors leading to career change were experiences in previous jobs, various non-vocational experiences, family relationships, physical limitations, and sociological factors. The challenges students faced included: finances; lack of time; difficulties with classes; and problems making changes, obtaining a new job, making decisions, overcoming negative previous educational experiences, and dealing with the college system. The resources students used to assist in career transition were personal resources; support of family and friends; and institutional services, especially financial aid services, instructors, the learning center, and the counseling office.

INTRODUCTION

Mid-life is a time which frequently involves transition of various kinds, including career transition (Jaques, 1965; Levinson, 1978; Schein, 1978; Sheehy, 1976). Most Americans will face two, three, or more career changes in a lifetime (Goodman & Waters, 1986). The traditional idea of choosing a career at one point in time and staying with it until retirement is becoming a myth. Rapid technological, organizational, and personal changes are becoming a reality (Cetron, 1990; Leibowitz & Lea, 1986) and bring career change in their wake. These career changes and the human transition processes involved require enormous amounts of time, money, and energy and should be carefully planned and implemented. It is therefore important to understand the process of career transition and its implications for individuals, for organizations, and for society.

A number of theories, such as career choice theories (Holland, 1985; Parsons, 1909; Roe & Baruch, 1967), career development theories (Ginzberg, 1984; Super, 1963), adult development theories (Gould, 1972; Kegan, 1982; Levinson, 1978; Sheehy, 1976), and transition theories (Hopson & Adams, 1977; Perosa & Perosa, 1983; Schlossberg, 1984) have contributed insight to counselors who assist mid-life adults in transition, but there is still a need for further understanding, especially with diverse populations. Previous research has primarily focused on a fairly narrow range of subjects: white middle class males in white collar or professional careers (Gill, Coppare & Lowther, 1983; Minor, 1986). Women, minorities, lower socioeconomic classes, and individuals in lower prestige occupations (Parker & Chan, 1986) are also changing careers and are increasingly returning to college, especially to community colleges, to change to new careers or to enhance their skills (Boughan, 1991; Center for the Study of Community Colleges, 1986; Merriam, 1984; Shearon & Tollefson, 1989). They are often largely ignored when career issues are the focus of a study (Crites, 1981).

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There is a lack of services available in many institutions to address specifically the needs of adult students who are returning to school at mid-life (Doucette & Dayton, 1989; Haskell & Wiener, 1986). One need is for improvement in career development services for adult community college students (Kitabchi & Benjamin, 1984; Weeks & Sillen, 1985). If this is where a large proportion of the women, minorities, and individuals in the lower prestige careers are going for education for their career changes, there is a need for further research in order to understand what happens when these individuals attempt a career change, so that better institutional responses can be made.

FINDINGS AND IMPLICATIONS

This study was an exploratory qualitative case study of students in career transition for the purpose of better understanding their process of career change and the needs for assistance they experienced in reaching toward their career goals. A group of eight students who were making career changes were purposefully selected for diversity by means of a questionnaire that was mailed to 35-45 year old students at City College. The participants were interviewed, data were analyzed by the constant comparative method, and individual case studies of the students were developed. Also the four counselors who work with the community college students on the campus were interviewed and their data were analyzed in a similar manner. Then the data were analyzed across the eight cases of mid-life career change using data from the questionnaires and counselor interviews to verify findings. The study offers a model of mid-life career transition which suggests hypotheses for further study (see Figure 1).

The students did not view their present jobs as "careers", but considered the new occupations they were pursuing to be "careers" because they had now consciously chosen their occupations. Figure 1 offers a visual summary of a career change model which emerged from the data in this study. The career change process is portrayed as an uneven line, representing the difficult transition process of individuals who were pursuing a career change by returning to college. The left portion depicts the factors leading to the desire or need for career change: experiences in previous jobs, various non-vocational experiences, family relationships, physical limitations, and sociological factors which forced individuals into career change.

Many of the experiences influencing the students' desire to change careers were random events rather than planned processes of career change. Many of the influences were viewed negatively by the students. Previous work was largely something to escape. Economic factors, incidents, individuals, and institutions pressured or forced the students to seek career change. Various non-vocational influences, such as physical limitations and the needs of students' children, exerted at least as much influence as vocational factors. If counselors are to be of service to mid-life adult students, they must be prepared to look beyond vocational issues and to address personal and relational issues affecting individuals in their own unique situations.

The top right portion of Figure 1 represents the challenges encountered by the students in seeking career change and the bottom right portion represents the resources used by the students in meeting the challenges. The challenges tended to work against the attainment of their career change goals. The resources which were brought to bear served to help meet their challenges and thus positively enhanced their efforts to reach their goals. There was not a direct linear process of career change, but more nearly a cyclical experience. Most of the students had made more than one career or occupational change. In some cases the students had cycled more than once; i.e. considered career changes, perhaps even began to plan for career changes, but found the challenges outweighed the resources and cycled back into the old occupation. For the first time most of the students in the study were including highereducation as part of the preparation for the new career. They were in the midst of career change and had not yet attained their goals.

MID-LIFE CAREER CHANGE MODEL FOR VOCATIONAL STUDENTS IN LOW PRESTIGE CAREERS

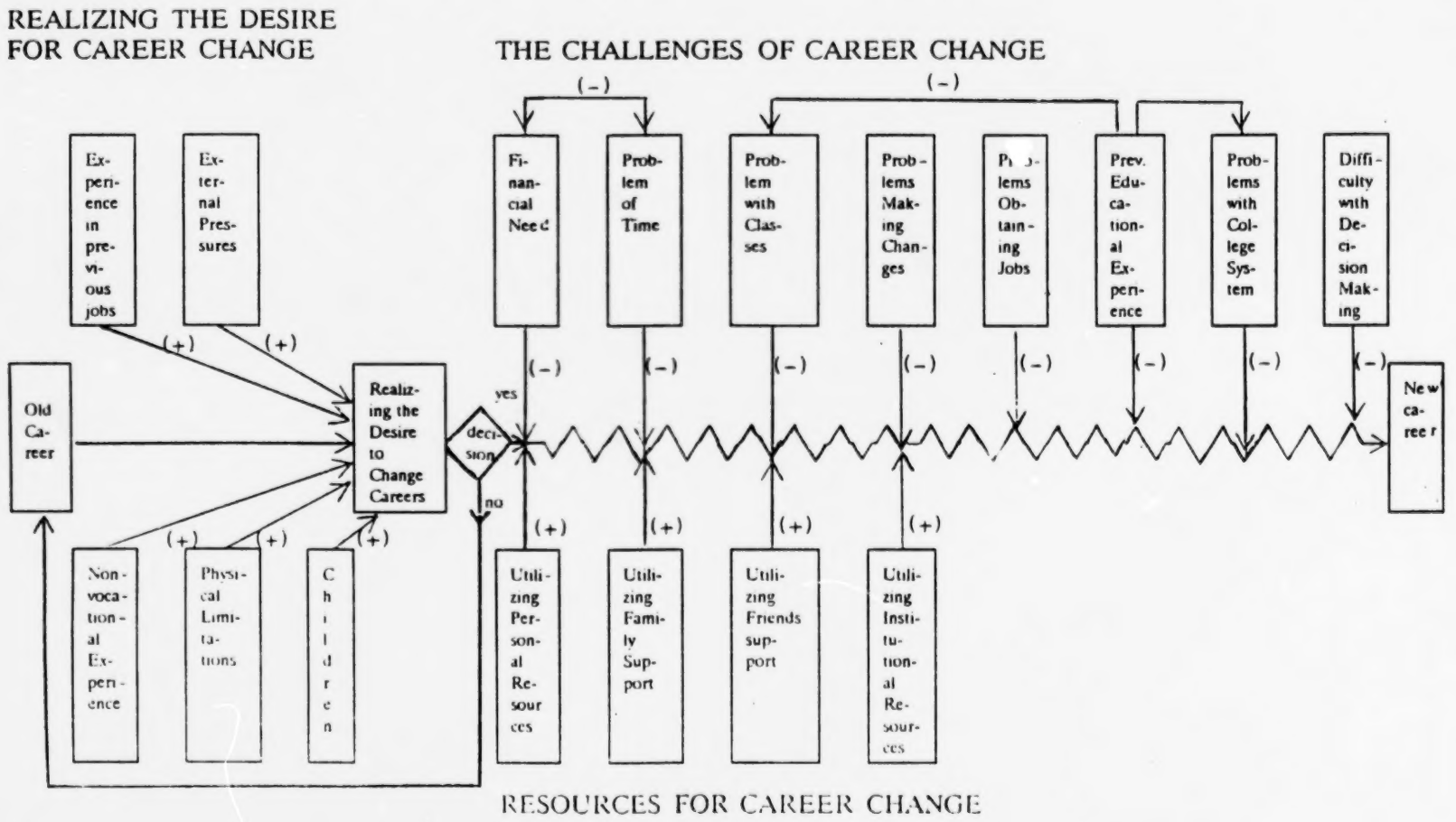

Figure 1. Proposed Mid-Life Career Change Model

Financial needs and the lack of time for students' multiple priorities were the greatest challenges. The students worked full-time and attended college part-time. There were many demands upon their finances and time because of their adult responsibilities toward family and community. These findings, if further supported by research, imply that there is a need for flexibility in various job training and welfare programs to allow students to attend college part-time and complete courses at their own pace. Student services and courses should be available on week-ends and evenings for students who work full-time. Students also found financial aid to be insufficient for their needs. They felt they were forced to work long hours to earn a living for themselves and their families and pay for college at the same time. The implication is that financial aid programs should be flexible and take account of the unique needs and responsibilities of adult students in addition to the needs of traditional-aged college students.

Some students experienced difficulty with classes because of a lack of academic preparation or rusty study skills. This implies a need for study skills classes or developmental classes for students who return to school after many years away from classroom settings.

Some students experienced problems with the college system because of a lack of knowledge and exposure to higher education. Some students were having difficulty in deciding on a new career direction. Most had some fears related to finding a new job, and some feared age discrimination in the job market. These challenges imply the need for counseling services. Because adults tend to be independent and do not spend many hours on the campus, efforts should be made to provide convenient access to information and non-threatening access to counselor assistance.

The mid-life adult students seemed to seek a minimal amount of assistance from student services, including the counseling office, for two reasons: a desire to be self-sufficient and a lack of awareness of services. When institutional resources were sought out, it was a pragmatic response to a particular problem. The students sought specific answers to specific needs at the time. Unfortunately the students often did not find the most effective resources to meet the needs quickly and efficiently, but often floundered for a time. This implies a need for greater effort toward providing information in a useable format for adults: newsletters, mailings, orientation sessions, classroom announcements, etc.

Students relied heavily on their own personal resources and developed coping strategies to overcome challenges where their own resources fell short of meeting their needs. Their motivation to reach their goals was their greatest asset. Although the students were primarily self-reliant, they sought and received encouragement and moral support from family, friends, and other students. The reliance upon peer support systems implies that adult students need opportunities for interaction with each other on the campus, such as peer support groups and organizations and facilities for non-traditional students. Because adults on campus have unique needs, it is also advisable that college staff who serve older adult students have a thorough understanding of adult development.

CONCLUSION

Mid-life adult students are increasingly returning to higher education to prepare for career change. If the findings of this study are further verified, they imply that college staff members should have an understanding of adult development and transition theory as well as career development theory in offering services for this group. Staff members should recognize that many factors outside the classroom and job setting, such as families, physical changes and limitations, and personal financial commitments are influencing these career change attempts. Adults have the motivation to succeed, but may require greater flexibility and different kinds of services from traditional student services to

reach their goals. Expanded efforts to communicate with adult students, non-traditional peer group programs, study skills workshops, developmental classes, flexibility in financial aid programs, and flexibility in scheduling classes and services should enhance the chance of success for students in mid-life career transition.

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LEARNING ORGANIZATIONS: A CRITICAL REVIEW

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ABSTRACT

The best opportunity for congruency between workplace education and adult education principles may be the learning organization with its emphasis on using workers' life experiences to problem solve with immediate application of learning being the goal. While all of this sounds very promising for the adult educator, a critical review of the literature utilizing the strategies of Foucault reveals two concerns: 1.) the uncritical acceptance of learning organizations and 2.) the lack of research regarding learning organizations. Presenting learning organizations in a manner that they are "all things to all people" merely dilutes the trustworthiness of the article. Analysis and balance was needed in much of the literature.

INTRODUCTION

American businesses are in a state of crisis. Organizations must respond to a variety of symptoms such as inability to deal with a global economy, suffocating bureaucracies, lack of creativity, fickle customer preferences and a workforce without the necessary skills for the emerging business structures. Proposed solutions focus on the organizational structure, use of technology for improved communications, and the development of human resources. A central component of each is the role of learning within the organization.

One intriguing strategy, for both organizational theorists and adult educators, is business as a learning organization. The concept of businesses adapting to rapid and constant change would appear to hold promise for those interested in lifelong learning, the workplace as a learning laboratory, self-directed learning, action learning and other pedagogical methods. The optimism and excitement in the literature regarding learning organizations warrants a critical review.

This review will examine the literature to determine how existing training departments may be affected, whose needs are being met, acceptance of learning organizations, congruency with organizational theory and commonality of themes. If learning organizations are to change corporate thinking, adult educators should help organizations develop practices congruent with adult education principles. In addition to examining the areas listed, this review will use Michel Foucault's four strategies (Foucault, 1980): reversal, discontinuity, specificity and exteriority to analyze tenets of learning organizations as reflected in the literature. The discourse of learning and business as they are merged in the learning organization will be examined.

The following data bases were searched: ABI/INFORM, ERIC and Wilson Business Abstracts. Two citations were found using ERIC, forty-eight using ABI/INFORM, and thirty-three using Wilson Business Abstracts. Several citations were duplicates. Twenty-four articles, representative of the literature and meeting selection criteria, were located for review. The selection criteria were that they be business or industry focused, published since 1988; not books or project descriptions. Both scholarly and trade journals were deemed appropriate.

WHAT IS A LEARNING ORGANIZATION?

There is no single agreed upon definition for a "learning organization." Writers define learning organization based upon their perspectives or standpoints. Adding to the difficulty of a consensus is the over-use and careless application of the term. One common theme throughout all definitions is continuous improvement through learning. The process is ongoing and involves innovation as well as refinement of existing methods, knowledge, structures, culture, thinking and interaction. Another common theme is the Gestaltist view. By stressing individual improvement, the organization itself becomes more powerful and capable of surviving the competitive encounters of a global marketplace.

Some definitions stress acquisition of knowledge (Garvin, 1994; Leonard-Barton, 1992) while others emphasize culture (Kiernan, 1993; Marsick & Watkins, 1992). The creativity and inquisitive nature of individuals are emphasized by some (Galagan, 1991; Kramlinger, 1992) and that of organizations by others (Arkin, 1993; Pedler, Boydell & Burgoyne, 1989). Several writers used definitions of others and allowed readers to select their own (Beard, 1993; Gordon, 1992; Ulrich, Von Glinow, & Jick, 1993). A learning organization is one in which every member is involved in continuous learning that allows for individual and organizational change.

The literature can be grouped into three categories: articles written for practitioners; articles written for theory building; and articles that were case studies. While all of the case studies were written for practitioners and applied theory to practice, one (Leonard-Barton, 1992), appeared to be theory building through examination of a case. It is recognized that to do any type of categorization is to do violence to the material (Lather, 1994) and that the designation of an article to a particular category can be challenged.

Most articles, including those for practitioners, were written by academicians (eleven of twenty-four articles). Four articles were written by human resource personnel or managers. Five were written by editors or staff writers, two by consultants and two authors were not identified. One might have expected a larger number of articles oriented toward theory building from such university oriented authors.

ROLE OF TRAINING

Traditional training practices rely on behaviorist and modeling learning theories. Trainers emphasize skill acquisition and knowledge rather than learning how to learn. Honold (1991, p. 56) describes training as "what we do to and for people. It does not involve a critical thinking process." Usually workers, supervisors, and unions are excluded from planning, implementing and evaluating training, which is done in training centers or classrooms, not in the work area.

The literature suggests that training is being redefined by the learning organization as learning. Learning is viewed as lifelong (Kiernan, 1993; Nopper, 1993), involving everyone (Honold, 1991; Kim, 1993; Leonard-Barton, 1992), emphasis on critical thinking (Honold, 1991; Wisdom & Denton, 1991), experimentation and risk-taking (Garvin, 1994; Schein, 1993; Ulrich, Von Glinow & Jick, 1993), bottom-up rather than top-down (Arkin, 1993; Galagan, 1991; Huey, 1994; Hurley, 1993; Johnson, 1993; Kramlinger, 1992) and immediately applicable with mistakes allowed (Leonard-Barton, 1992; Wisdom & Denton, 1991).

There was not unanimity among the authors. Gordon (1989), editor of Training magazine, seems to champion traditional training over the new learning organization. He questions how new a concept lifelong learning is and whether it exists. Part of his premise appears to be that as technology simplifies life, less thinking will be necessary. In a second article, Gordon (1992) argues that performance technology (PT) is the key to learning. He praises the systematic process of PT for influencing the actions of people on behalf of the organization. PT's tie to behaviorism is clear from Gordon's description (p. 29), "the ultimate question to ask about a training program is not whether or not the trainees 'learned' the material, but whether their behavior has changed since they returned to the job and whether this new behavior produces accomplishments that benefit the organization." The emphasis on accomplishments is Gordon's. One article (Profile of a learning organization, 1992, p.14) states that a learning organization is functioning well when it has "training and education programs that are designed to support the change strategies and values held by top management."

More reflective of the literature is Kramlinger's (1992) view that the traditional role of training programs of passing on the learning of "higher-ups to the lower-downs" must be redefined. He suggests that trainers urge management to reward widespread and spontaneous learning. However, Kramlinger is not ready to totally get rid of "courseware." He describes it as the prime deliverable of the training program that justifies its existence and provides it with power.

While some argue for systemic change (Galagan, 1991; Schein, 1993; Ulrich, Von Glinow, & Jick, 1993) there may be validity in viewing learning organizations critically. Applying the reversal strategy of Foucault results in asking "why have training at all?" If everyone is responsible for learning, is training needed? Training is about imposing organizational will on individuals. It shapes behavior and directs learning. The argument that it should be redefined in the learning organization is "icing upon a stale cake" (Johnson, 1993) rather than a paradigm shift. If learning is to be truly organic, it cannot be directed or controlled by behaviorist and modeling approaches. It is telling that authors (Gordon, 1992, 1989; Nopper, 1993; Honold, 1991; Peters, 1993; Kramlinger, 1992, Arkin, 1993; Beard, 1993) in the human resource/management field, consulting or writing for training publications want to tinker with the training program rather than part with it.

While making training programs more learner-centered is laudable, it leaves a department within the organization that has a somewhat legitimate claim to the learning domain. In order to justify their budgets and existence, training departments will seek to influence learning.

WHOSE NEEDS ARE BEING MET?

It is interesting to examine the literature for what kind of learning is being advocated. There is discussion that it be efficient, economical and effective (Gordon, 1989), measurable (Garvin, 1994; Kiernan, 1993), integrating (Leonard-Barton, 1992), free from anxiety (Schein, 1993), done in teams rather than individually (The learning organization, 1991) be empowering (Kramlinger, 1992; Leonard-Barton, 1992), experiential (Kim, 1993), self-managed (Hurley, 1993), reflective (Marsick and Watkins, 1992) and systemic (Galagan, 1991). While there is discussion about individual versus organizational learning (Adler & Cole, 1993; Honold, 1991; Kim, 1993; Nopper, 1993) there is little discussion about how the individual benefits. Implicitly, it is to be understood that if the organization benefits then the workers benefit. All case study articles mention some form of profit sharing. But most of the literature says that the learning of the learning organization is functional. We learn in order to do our jobs better and be more productive. Only Nopper (1993) mentions adult basic literacy being a focus. Honold (1991), in her description of Johnsonville Foods, points out that learning need not be work related but should encourage the person to think. Outside of these two examples, little attention is paid to the learner desires or choice in learning.

Applying Foucault's strategy of discontinuity, one must answer the question of whose needs are being met by replying, the organization. The obvious gap in the learning organization is learner choice. If process and critical thinking are more important than content and knowledge, what difference does it make what the learner is learning?

The emphasis on efficiency and productivity resulting from learning is characteristic of Taylor's scientific management approach that has been the basis for American business most of the twentieth century. The individual only counts if he or she adds to the organization. Witness the downsizing, even in learning organizations, that is leaving individuals without jobs or income in order to benefit the organization. Learning organizations meet individual needs only if they are not in conflict with organizational needs.

UNCRITICAL ACCEPTANCE OF LEARNING ORGANIZATIONS

Except for the die-hard traditional training turf protector, Gordon (1992, 1989) there is general acceptance that learning organizations are desirable. Uncritical acceptance of the concept does an injustice to its complexity. The entrenchment of management's belief that success lies in controlling cost and improving profit margins is a major impediment to implementing learning organizations (Johnson, 1993). This fixation on cost containment causes organizations to look at themselves as a collection of parts rather than as a whole. When one part, such as research and development, is cut, the impact on the rest of the organization is not fully realized. There may be cost savings, but profitable innovations may be lost.

James O' Toole, a professor and leadership expert, describes American managers by saying, "Ninety-five percent of American managers today say the right thing. Five percent actually do it" (Huey, 1994, p. 42). Managerial resistance, especially by mid-level managers, may be the biggest threat to the learning organization. A learning organization is based on egalitarianism (Leonard-Barton, 1992) that doesn't allow for "do so cause I said so" authoritarianism. Clearly managerial style is a concern when considering a learning organization.

While Adler and Cole (1993) personally prefer a "human-centered" model, their research suggests that "lean production" is best for stimulating improvement while maintaining employee morale. Their study raises an important question. Does organizational design matter to the appropriateness of implementing a learning organization? Organizational theory would indicate that it does. One criterion for determining organizational design is corporate culture (Daft, 1992).

Kim (1993) points out that the critical issue is how individual learning is transferred to the organization. Unless mental models, similar to Mezirow's (1991) concept of meaning perspectives, are shared among individuals within the organization, learning is not transferred and is lost. This concern for shared mental models raises the question of availability of adequate communication strategies, coordination between departments, team or study circles, and a corporate culture that supports these items.

Again applying Foucault's strategies of reversal and discontinuity leads to criticism of the literature. With the exceptions already noted, the literature doesn't ask what is the problem of accepting learning organizations. The first thing revealed by any strategy that emphasizes learning is learning problems. When hospitals began to implement TQM programs required for accreditation, they discovered many employees could not read the training materials nor do the math required. Few corporations are prepared to deal with learning disabilities or special needs of learners. Are these employees to be released because they don't fit into a learning organization? American schools have wrestled with the problem for many years and students still dropout or go through the motions without learning. Are businesses prepared to deal with these problems?

A second question raised, is a learning organization appropriate for every company? Learning organizations may be the very thing for high velocity environments where change is the order of the day. But for companies in stable environments with mechanistic structures, it becomes less desirable unless the company is embracing a Maslovian view of the world. Contingency based decisions are more the norm for businesses. A host of organizational factors need to be considered before a decision can be made that a learning organization is correct for any given situation.

CONGRUENCY WITH ORGANIZATIONAL THEORY

Contextual dimensions of size, culture, organizational technology, environment and goals and strategy along with structural dimensions of formalization, specialization, standardization, hierarchy of authority, complexity, centralization, professionalism and personnel ratios are crucial determinants of organizational design (Daft, 1992). A true learning organization crosses many of these dimensions. An organization with a high degree of formalization and standardization would not be an ideal candidate for a learning organization design.

Kiernan (1993) argues that for organizations to become high performers in the twenty-first century, they will need seven core elements: organizational learning, innovation/experimentation, constructive contention, empowerment/shared leadership, optimized value potential, corporate sustainability and strategic re-framing. Only organizational learning, innovation/experimentation and empowerment/shared leadership are usually discussed in the learning organization literature.

Leonard-Barton's case study of Chaparral Steel is another broad view of learning organizations. She discusses the need to span boundaries both internal (horizontal and vertical) and external (bench marking, customer involvement and environmental scanning) to share information. It is essential to

transcend internal boundaries and share mental models (Kim, 1993). Leonard-Barton is aware of the complex organizational eco-systems that integrate problem solving, internal knowledge, innovation, experimentation and external information.

Ulrich, Von Glinow and Jick (1993) emphasize the importance of culture change for learning organizations. A learning organization can only exist if a strong corporate culture embraces change. Most individuals and organizations view change as disruptive. Corporations want to standardize procedures, products, operations and methods. Without a corporate culture that embraces change, a learning organization will not happen. Learning and change must occur together. Learning without change can occur when individuals generate new ideas but do not share them in the organizational system, or organizational units experiment with an idea but fail to share their learnings across boundaries.

When Bill Gore discovered the process for making computer ribbon cable insulation, he was working for Du Pont. Unable to get anyone in Du Pont to share his vision he left and formed W. L. Gore-Tex & Associates. Learning failed to occur at Du Pont (Huey, 1994). An example of the latter is the development of a new technology by an IBM department (Martin, 1989) which resulted in simplified and faster computing well suited to minicomputers. Horizontal conflict between the mainframe department and the innovative developers prevented sharing across boundaries within the company, and competitors beat IBM into the minicomputer market. IBM recently cut its workforce by more than 100,000 people.

COMMONALITIES

Several common themes ran through the literature such as empowerment, experimentation, role of change, systems thinking, lifelong learning and ownership. The theme of empowerment deserves separate treatment. It is through empowerment that the others occur.

Empowerment was either explicitly or implicitly present in most of the articles. Supervisors are unnecessary because employees will monitor themselves (Honold, 1991). Freed of their supervisory duties, managers will become coaches and facilitators (Wisdom & Denton, 1991). Once rid of the command and control organization, the incentive to protect knowledge as one's claim to distinction is removed and information will be shared (Huey, 1994). Employees in a thinking organization feel ownership and as a result won't engage in behavior detrimental to it (Honold, 1991). "The best way to build good employees is to treat them as if they are already as good as you want them to be" (Wisdom & Denton, 1991, p. 57).

The reversal strategy of Foucault asks how the learning organization takes power from the worker. Think for a moment of a worker who is content to spend the day doing whatever the supervisor tells him in order to be able to do what he or she wants outside of work. That worker's philosophy might be summed up as "working to live." If that same worker were placed in a learning organization and had to make decisions, take on added responsibility, negotiate solutions, interact with others, even stay beyond working hours, the worker would be "living to work." Which worker has power and power over what?

Will workers receive support as they undertake these new responsibilities or do they learn by trial and error? One means of eliminating costly middle managers is to have the employees become self-policing. Through enticements and group norms, employees become their own supervisors. Is this empowerment or is it abandonment (Adler, & Cole, 1993)? If power can be given, can it not be taken? The term empowerment is paternalistic, with the organization being the father figure. It conjures up the image of an anthropomorphic organization making people whole and empowered by bestowing on them the right to think and learn. While only a cynic would deny that there are organizations motivated out of humanistic philosophy and wanting to assist individuals in self-actualizing, only a fool would be blind to the fact that the biggest gains made through empowerment are by the organization.

DISCUSSION

The literature is clearly biased in favor of the learning organization. Whether in the trade journals or the academic research oriented journals, learning organizations are hot. The enthusiasm is not totally unwarranted. After years of scientific management exhorting that the bosses know what's best and the workers know nothing, the learning organization is like a breath of fresh air. The promise of the learning organization can be delineated in four areas:

1. Learning organizations are more democratic. The opportunity and structure are there for workers and management to break out of the old paradigm. Leonard-Barton's (1992) case stud, demonstrated the potential for the democratization of the workplace. Numerous examples were given of employees and managers working together to solve problems and do the impossible.

2. Learning organizations use a systems approach. They look at all the parts and how they interact. Peter Senge (Galagan, 1991) is credited for the greatest impact on learning organizations doing systems thinking, one of his five disciplines for learning organizations. The other four are: personal mastery, mental models, shared vision and team learning.

3. Learning organizations can deal with change. Kiernan's (1993) article on strategic architecture stresses the need for change. He reminds us of the role of vision. Companies such as Sony, 3M, Motorola, and Levi Strauss have, according to Kiernan, inspiring shared vision.

4. Learning organizations stress lifelong learning. No articles were noteworthy in dealing with this particular promise of learning organizations. Adult education and andragogy was mentioned in only one article (Gordon, 1989). Adult educators need to look for ways to contribute to and learn from the literature of learning organizations.

While these are four promising attributes of learning organizations that warrant our interest, there are two concerns with the literature that need to be addressed. First, the literature does not do the concept of learning organizations justice by blindly accepting and endorsing it. Analysis and balance was needed in much of the literature. Second, none of the articles were research articles on learning organizations. Case studies is the closest the literature comes to substantiating claims. Adler & Clark (1993) couch their arguments in research terms, but fail to give specifics of their study.

If "learning organization" is to avoid the trap of other business buzz words, research is needed detailing under what conditions it is most likely to be successful, what type of organizations are unable to use the model and what happens when it is imposed upon unwilling participants.

We live in an information age that exalts learning. Adult educators need to be cautious of blindly embracing everything that has to do with learning. To do so will damage our credibility when we make claims of value. Learning organizations represent an opportunity to enter an arena, business and industry, in a manner consistent with adult education principles. However, we must exercise caution and not exaggerate or we will quickly wear out our welcome.

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CONNECTIONS: PROVIDING INFORMATION ACCESS FOR OUTREACH EDUCATION

Donna L. Whitson

ABSTRACT

As distance education technology continues to expand, learning opportunities are available to students in a variety of formats. Much has been written about the technology and equipment, distance teaching and learning strategies, as well as other instructional issues, administrative issues and financial concerns. One important area which has been neglected in distance education discussions is access to information resources to support the learning activities being offered and providing user education in distance access to resources. This paper proposes a model to address this need which includes a three-pronged approach. The three areas include awareness of information literacy (and the skills needed to become information literate), inclusion and integration of information access into the curriculum of outreach/distance programs and making connections to information professionals to enhance information access.

BACKGROUND

Distance technology has expanded over the past ten years with more and more off-campus courses, programs and degrees are being offered by higher education. Audioconferencing, teleconferencing, computer conferencing, compressed video and satellite delivery systems make it possible for students in scattered locations to become classmates. Instructors have become more sophisticated in the technical aspects of distance delivery and students are becoming comfortable with a variety of delivery media. The same, or often, expanded capabilities are available for course delivery outside the traditional classroom. We are closing the gap in providing equal educational opportunities that include rural, once isolated, learners and on-campus students. Experts from around the world can join our classrooms via technology. Our educational delivery paradigms have changed dramatically. We have worked hard to ensure quality and equity in distance programs in all areas but one. That neglected or forgotten area of outreach/distance learning is access to information resources to support courswork and research. On campus we take the library for granted as a place for students to find and use resources. Online or electronic access is also assumed to be available in the library. Both on-campus and outreach education programs often ignore basic information skills. Instructors tend to expect learners to have some innate knowledge of accessing and using resources. This is simply not the case for most students and even some instructors. Many fall into a category of information illiterates.

In the information age in which we live, no one can afford to be information illiterate. Futurists tell us we can no longer learn all the "facts" we need to know. We must learn **how** and **where** to find the information we need because that information is being produced at exponential rates. We must also teach students to critically evaluate that explosion of information. It is our responsibility as educators to connect our students with the tools they need to access information to produce self-reliant, self-directed, critical thinking, decision-making lifelong learners. Cleveland (1985, p.190) warned us almost a decade ago, "People who do not educate themselves, and keep reeducating themselves, to participate in the new knowledge environment will be the peasants of the information society." Another expert, a library dean said, "Information management and use skills- information competency skills - must become fundamental components of the education of all people, at all levels of the educational system. Until our citizens learn these basic skills, just as they learn to read, write, and do math, they will continue to be overwhelmed by the volumes and volumes of information. Information illiteracy will be as costly to individuals and to society as reading illiteracy is today" (Kaufman, 1992, p.38).

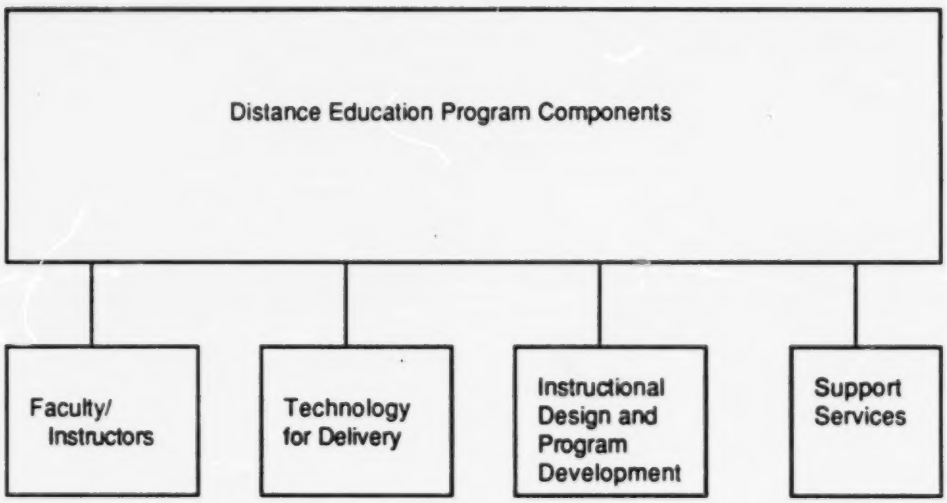
Only since the 1980s have academic libraries made extensive efforts to provide information access for distance learners. Courier service for materials, reserve collections at local sites, contracts with local public libraries and some online access are limited methods of information delivey in operation at many institutions. A 1990 directory of off-campus library services listed programs at only 68 institutions in Canada and the U.S. (Whitson, Cottam & VanArsdale, 1991). During the past four years, technology has expanded those services largely because of electronic access such as the information superhighway–the Internet. Academic libraries are beginning to include Internet in the bibliographic instruction they offer inhouse, but almost nothing is provided as part of distance courses.

A survey of the literature indicates the current gap is in user education for both on and off-campus course delivery. Those missing links in distance education are 1) basic information literacy skills, 2) technology access to information resources and 3) connections for students and instructors with information professionals. This paper will pose a concern about information access for distance students, propose one model for dealing with the issue and present an approach for connecting that theory to practice.

MODEL

An abbreviated, simplified picture of most distance education programs currently in operation might be represented by the following diagram.

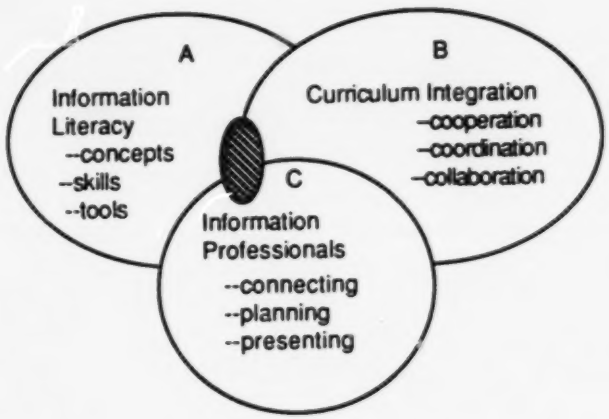
Figure 1 Distance education



Under support services many programs include advising, financial aid, registration, etc. A few include information resource access here. This author believes it is so important that it should be added as a fifth basic component. A graphic representation and an expanded explanation of the three part model follow.

The model is represented by this diagram.

Figure 2 Information Access Model



INFORMATION LITERACY

Information literacy can be defined as "the ability to effectively access and evaluate information for a given need. It includes an integrated set of skills (research strategy and evaluation) and knowledge of tools and resources" (Breivik & Gee, 1989, p.24). Distance delivery programs need to include an awareness of what information literacy is and at least an introduction to the skills, concepts and tools needed to achieve it. It may be as simple as providing the toll-free number to connect distance students to campus library services. Ideally, a minimum of one class session should be spent on the concepts, skills and tools needed. Concepts might include how information is organized, developing information problem solving and critical thinking skills for information evaluation and use. Concepts taught depend on the information literacy level of the intended audience. Skills could include identifying information needs, developing productive search strategies, understanding controlled vocabularies and boolean logic, and any specialized needs relevant to the discipline or subject area. Tools would include print materials (books and journals) and electronic access resources, again cognizant of discipline needs.

CURRICULUM INTERGRATION

Information access can be taught as separate, independent courses, but are much more significant to learners when not presented in isolation. At many colleges and universities, general studies programs include a library instruction component and even an introduction to electronic mail. These attempts are better than nothing, but not ideal. Whatever the course topic, information access can be presented as part of the course by applying the three C approach--cooperation, coordination and collaboration. Faculty or instructors work with students to determine needs and then work with colleagues to provide the necessary training. In the information age if we are really a learning society, students can no longer rely on static information or rapidly outdated facts. "...(S)tudents must learn the process of acquiring, evaluating, and assimilating information as needed. But information is not an end goal; information is a tool for understanding action, knowledge, and growth--i.e., learning." (Fink, 1989). In light of that philosophy, it would seem inappropriate not to integrate information access as a central core for any class.

INFORMATION PROFESSIONALS

The third element of this model cannot be separated from the other two. It is the inclusion of information professionals in the information access process. The largest category of information professionals includes librarians. These academic colleagues are professionally trained in information access. Faculty should connect with librarians through their institutional libraries, some of which have outreach offices that already provide services. They may be willing to make class presentations and certainly can be valuable resources for faculty. Librarians should be represented on university curriculum committees and are usually willing to work with individual faculty for course planning. In most academic libraries the staff have specialties in various subjects and disciplines.

CONCLUSIONS/IMPLICATIONS

In the Information Access Model in Figure 2, the point where all three circles (elements) overlap represents an information literate learner. If faculty adopt the model and adapt it for their individual situations on and off-campus, great strides could be made to eliminate information illiteracy. The model itself suggests more research needed to support it. Some of the possible topics for research include the following:

* how to better teach information access
* which skills are most relevent
* how to enhance connections between faculty and librarians
* how do learners process information
* how does distance delivery impact access

Awareness and promotion of information literacy provides real opportunity for making all students, especially those at a distance, truly lifelong learners. Information access provides a vital link in connecting outreach students to each other and to the campus.

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EXAMINING THE CONCEPT OF "MULTIPLE COMMUNITIES" AND THEIR IMPACT ON ADULT LEARNERS

George S. Wood, Jr.

ABSTRACT

The theory that each adult is simultaneously a member of multiple communities which function in various degrees of harmony and disharmony with each other is examined. Research data gathered from eight graduate students provides a preliminary test of the theory's general application. Six categories or types of communities are proposed as a way of understanding how communities are formed on different bases and for different purposes. The author suggests that the multiple communities of each adult learner can be sources of either mutual support or profound conflict in the decisions and behaviors of the learner.

INTRODUCTION

The notion that each of us is influenced in certain ways by the community or communities in which we are raised is not a new idea. Most people agree with such a notion, although they may disagree with each other as to what those influences are or have been in particular cases. Not so common is the notion that each adult is simultaneously a member of multiple communities, which function in various degrees of harmony and disharmony with each other with respect to their influences on the adult's behavior, including his/her behavior as an adult learner.

If the notion of multiple communities with simultaneous influences on individual learning attitudes and behaviors were credible, then adult educators would be well-served to consider what these communities are and how they influence particular adult learners (present and future clients, for example). Insights into learner motivation, learner attitudes, and possibly even learning styles might be the result. The notion of multiple communities also would have implications for community education leaders interested in changing (improving) individual lives, groups, organizations, and neighborhoods of particular geopolitical communities.

To understand what is meant by "multiple communities" in this case, one must understand what is meant by the term "community." Is "community" a territorial location; a condition in which human beings constitute a structure defined by meaningful relationships; a social system organized to serve particular social, political, or economic purposes; a group with common ethnic, racial, or cultural characteristics; all of the above; or something else?

Sociologists have long dealt with such questions. In 1972, D. E. Poplin in the book Communities: A Survey of Theories and Methods of Research wrote, "One need not explore far into the literature of sociology before encountering the term community. For alert readers this can become a source of utmost confusion." Poplin expresses his research preference for defining community only in territorial terms in the interest of scientific clarity and rigor, but goes on to say that other sociologists have applied the term to "factories, trade unions, corporations, professions...and at various times reference is made to prison communities, military communities, religious communities, academic communities, and so on, through a seemingly endless array of social phenomena." (pp.2-3) "Indeed," he writes, "community is sometimes used to refer to a moral or a spiritual phenomenon," as in the case of contemporary sociologists Minar and Greer (1969) who contended that community "expresses our vague yearnings for a commonality of desire, a communion with those around us, an extension of the bonds of kin and friend to all those who share a common fate with us." (In Poplin, 1972, p.5) Later, Poplin observes that "...community as a moral phenomenon seems to involve a sense of identity and unity with one's group and a feeling of involvement and wholeness on the part of the individual. In short, the term community has been used to refer to a condition in which human beings find themselves enmeshed in a tight-knit web of meaningful relationships with their fellow

human beings." (p. 7) Still later, he comments that "First, the community has been viewed as a social group or, more recently, as a social system. Second, the community has been analyzed as a network of interaction." (p. 13)

A few years earlier, Arensberg and Kimball (1965) had said that "...we start with the assumption that community should be viewed as a process involving social structure and cultural behavior...With this focus we seek those regularities in the relationships among individuals that are revealed in their activities with each other and with the physical items of their environment. From the analysis of these data come the designation of systems and the further search for principles which explain their variation and change." (pp. 1-2)

James S. Coleman (1972) wrote about "Community Disorganization" in part as follows: "To the sociologist and the layman alike, the term 'community' concerns things held in common. Some of these things may be tangible objects, such as the common property of a family or the common pasture lands held by a tribal community. Others are less tangible: common ideas, beliefs, and values, common customs and norms held by all, and finally, common or joint actions of the community as a whole. Furthermore, when we speak of a community, we ordinarily mean a set of people who have not just one element in common, but many. There are numerous kinds of communities in the larger society: the adolescent community, the Negro community, and the academic community, to name three...[however] some of these [communities] show hardly enough organization, hardly enough 'commonness' among their members to be called communities." (pp. 1-2)

Two more recent authorities are the primary references for the multiple communities theory. Webster's New Universal Unabridged Dictionary (1992) defines "community" as "1. a social group of any size whose members reside in a specific locality, share government, and have a common cultural and historical heritage. 2. a social group sharing common characteristics or interests and perceived or perceiving itself as distinct in some respect from the larger society within which it exists...7. the public; society..." (p.298)

The second source is Sheldon Berman, an educator, who wrote in Educational Leadership in 1990, "A community is a group of people who acknowledge their interconnectedness, have a sense of their common purpose, respect their differences, share in group decision making as well as in the responsibility for the actions of the group, and support each other's growth." (p. 77) This definition provides not so much a basic set of meanings for the term as a set of essential concepts or qualities for determining whether a community if fulfilling its promise. The consultants at Ball State University's Institute of Community Education Development used to refer to "the fully functioning community." Berman's definition appears to define such a community. However, it also raises questions about whether a community is a community if it does not perform the proper functions of a community or behave in ways that its members expect it to behave. Does a community exist if its members have no sense of community and ignore its existence in their personal behaviors? Or are there three "states of community":
non-community, partial community, and full community (or fully functioning community)? Berman's definition and the questions it raises are important to multiple communities theory because the application of the theory requires that the specific communities in which one is a member be identified and their influences examined.

However, the discussion of Berman*s notions is a bit premature here. The multiple communities theory needs explaining first.

THEORETICAL PROPOSITION

The "multiple communities" theory proposes that

1) every adult holds simultaneous membership in several communities;

2) each community exercises influence on individual needs, perceptions, values, attitudes, and behaviors;

3) relationships between communities affect life roles across communities;

4) the influences of the different communities are sometimes harmonious and reinforcing, sometimes disharmonious and conflicting;

5) behavior by individuals (both public and private) can be understood in terms of collective experiences and influences across communities;

6) he similarities and contradictions in the influences of communities, as well as the specific nature of those influences, are important in determining and understanding the values, perceptions, attitudes, and behaviors of individuals, including those related to adult education participation.

METHOD

The purpose of the research was to conduct a preliminary test of the theory's feasibility, to get some sign of how others viewed its promise as a workable, useful way of understanding community influences on human behavior. The following steps were used:

First, a model was constructed for conceptualizing the nature of an individual's multiple communities. It described six categories within which all possible communities can be located and which group communities on the basis of the fundamental characteristic or purpose responsible for their existence. (See Figure 1.) Second, eight graduate student subjects (six women and two men) were recruited to test the theory's feasibility. The subjects included one doctoral student and seven masters degree students in adult and community education. Third, the subjects participated in an orientation session on the multiple communities theoretical propositions (listed earlier) and the six categories model (Figure 1). Fourth, the students were asked to spend the next week reflecting on the proposed theory in light of their own memberships in or interactions with communities of any kind. They were asked to report back on whether any connections could be made between the theoretical propositions and their personal experiences. Fifth, the following week, after reporting back that they could indeed see some connections between theory and experience, they were asked to reflect for one more week and during that time to make lists of all communities they could think of, in which they held memberships. They were also asked to submit any thoughts they had about their experiences with these communities. Sixth, the following week a debriefing was held with the group. All group members had been able to identify at least a dozen communities in which they were active members; three of them could identify more than 20. They were asked to keep reflecting on the matter, as time permitted, until a later date some six weeks away when they were going to meet again. Seventh, six weeks later, they were asked to summarize their conclusions about the viability and application of the multiple communities theory. Representative comments were prepared for this report. Eighth, the author continues to collect reflections and reactions pertaining to the multiple communities theory. Participants in the Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference session are encouraged to submit feedback in written form at the conference or mail it to the author upon returning home.

COMMUNITY CATEGORY	DESCRIPTORS
NUCLEAR	IMMEDIATE FAMILY, EXTENDED FAMILY, SURROGATE FAMILY, OR ANY GROUP FUNCTIONING AS A FAMILY—Legally, financially and/or emotionally interdependent on an on-going basis; having an intimacy not found in the other categories.
TRIBAL	RACIAL, ETHNIC, GENDER, OR SOCIAL CLASS GROUP—Membership comes from physiological or lifetime social characteristics held in common.
COLLABORATIVE	PEER GROUPS, COLLECTIVES, ASSOCIATIONS, UNIONS, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE PLACES OF EMPLOYMENT, COLLEGIAL GROUPS, POLITICAL PARTIES, SPECIAL INTEREST GROUPS, CIVIC OR SOCIAL OR FRATERNAL GROUPS, ETC.—Having interrelationships among members based upon common goals, purposes, interests, or circumstances. Collaboration is the ultimate reason for existing.
GEOGRAPHIC	POLITICAL, EDUCATIONAL, SOCIAL, OR ECONOMIC ENTITIES DEFINED BY GEOGRAPHIC BOUNDARIES.
LIFE	THE SUM TOTAL OF FAMILY, FRIENDS, ACQUAINTANCES, AND OTHER SIGNIFICANT INDIVIDUALS DIRECTLY IMPACTING THE MEMBER (SUBJECT) ACROSS A LIFETIME.
WORLD	THE HUMAN RACE, THE INHABITANTS OF THE EARTH.

NOTES

All communities, by their nature, can be classified as NUCLEAR, TRIBAL, COLLABORATIVE, GEOGRAPHIC, LIFE, or WORLD. The categorical labels are somewhat arbitrary and subject to change.

The "glue" which holds individual communities together is different from category to category:

NUCLEAR–the need for intimacy
TRIBAL–physiological/sociological characteristics
COLLABORATIVE–common, agree-upon purposes and goals
GEOGRAPHICAL–immediate and on-going basic living needs (education, safety,justice, survival, etc.)
LIFE–a holistic sense of who one is and what purpose(s) one's life serves; how one's life adds up
WORLD–long-range cohabitation and survival on the planet

Collaboration can happen in all communities. A particular group or organization is a "collaborative community" when collaboration is its reason for being.

Figure 1
MULTIPLE COMMUNITIES THEORY CATEGORIES

COMMENTS OF STUDENTS

The following are selected comments received from the graduate students.

"My interpretation of this theory and my application of this theory to my life indicates that this theory is a valid, credible theory. I believe that every person in the world is a member of multiple communities...Unfortunately, all of these communities are competing with each other for their members' time, energy, financial support, and enthusiasm. For example, I will be in conflict with members of my nuclear and collaborative communities if I am supposed to attend my son's soccer game the same night that a neighborhood association meeting is being held..."

"There is little question that all of us simultaneously belong to multiple communities...Each community tends to have some effect upon our values, beliefs, attitudes, purpose for life, and behavior. Each community we participate in has some form of boundary in terms of...values, beliefs, shared resources, stated positions on issues, and acceptable forms of communication. Some communities are relatively open and freedom of expression is assured, while others are closed and follow a more rigid form of acceptable norms. When we begin to traverse community boundary lines, we must make adjustments in our values, beliefs, and norms in order to be accepted, to participate, and to be successful in promoting the purposes and causes of the joined community. Flexibility is the key to functioning in multiple communities without losing our own sense of purpose, direction, and personal growth."

"When communities are in conflict (e.g. the requirements to perform in a certain way on the job are in conflict with religious or political views of other communities), then decisions must be made which can cause conflict and stress, and notably subjugates one community to another. Some people easily change roles to play the part expected of them by the community that they are currently involved with. Other people find conflict resolution between communities to be much more personal and therefore much more stress producing."

"Individuals belong to a multitude of communities. The communities that one belongs to can blend together harmoniously or can be in conflict with one another. The greater the conflict between communities, the more stress one might be forced to endure. I think that sometimes people strive to ensure that the communities that they belong to are ones that would be in harmony with each other. Other times people simply change personalities to fit the community that they are in, and this role playing takes its toll on some more than others."

"My communities are interwoven by the very fabric of my being."

CONCLUSIONS

Many conclusions, most still somewhat tentative, have been drawn from the preliminary testing and the continuing explication of the theory. Five are of greatest importance to adult educators and community educators:

1) There is growing evidence that the theoretical propositions have merit, that they are "credible," to use the language of one of the student responders.

2) The idea of harmonious and disharmonious communities is worthy of serious consideration by adult educators. Local adult education communities are sometimes harmonious with and other times disharmonious with the other communities in the lives of both its learners and its professionals. Examples of each are boundless in number. The disharmony in particular is a likely factor in the unproductive behavior of learners and the non-participation of potential learners. It also can account for stress experienced by professionals.

3) This way of looking at the roles of communities in the lives of people suggests new, exciting directions for community educators to research and reflect on. We may need to look at topics such as " collaboration" and "problem-solving" in a new light.

4) Some communities are active and others relatively passive (inactive). It is often difficult to determine the influence of passive communities on the individual. There is also a question as to whether inactive communities should be regarded as communities at all.

5) The implications of the multiple communities theory go far beyond the thinking and investigating that has been done thus far by the author. He plans to continue working.

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WHY ISN'T NEEDS ASSESSING MORE USEFUL TO PRACTITIONERS?

George S. Wood, Jr.

ABSTRACT

On this issue, the author argues that (a) practitioners need a clearer understanding of the complex nature of "needs" as a basis for making decisions about "needs assessing," (b) learner needs are far more complex functions of the learner's life situation than the typical needs assessing would suggest, (c) a systems approach to envisioning learner needs produces a more useful context for needs assessing, and (d) context research or evaluation produces more useful data on needs. A systems-context model for envisioning needs and an application exercise are provided.

INTRODUCTION

With all that has been written about needs assessing, one would expect that it is a concept and process which practitioners have well in hand. With all of the classes, workshops, and conference sessions that have been presented on how to do needs assessing, one would expect that most practitioners do it and do it well. Neither of these expectations would seem to be the reality.

Many practitioners still don't seem to have decided what the value of needs assessing really is with respect to their normal program decision-making, or even special decision-making situations, for that matter. Needs assessing seems to many to consume more time and resources than is justified by the usefulness of the resulting data and insights. For many, needs assessing is done largely because government agencies and other funding sources require "needs assessment data" in their funding proposals.

Kowalski (1988) understates the case when he writes, "Although all adult educators support the notion of needs assessment as an element of programming, the concept has not been utilized fully." (p. 133) He goes on to point out that ambiguity persists on the topic of needs assessment for a variety of reasons, including the fact that there are so many competing approaches to needs assessing advocated, some of them similar in nature but using different terminology. He provides a list of needs descriptors to illustrate the point: educational needs, needs vs. wants, interests, felt needs, ascribed needs, real needs, symptomatic educational needs, normative needs, societal needs, organizational needs, created needs, discrepancy and derived needs, and so on. He also suggests that beyond the problem of confusion there are other reasons that needs assessing is either not done effectively or not done at all, among them inadequate preparation, poor planning, cost, reliability and validity errors, analysis errors, and political considerations.

Witkin (1984) talks about discrepancy needs and problem needs. Beatty (1981) points to prescriptive needs and motivational needs. And Maslow (1970), of course, presents us with the best known needs delineation of all: physiological, safety, belonging, self-esteem, and self-actualization. "Needs" are most often defined as "the gap between what is and what is required" (Kowalski, 1988, p.122); or as "a condition experienced by the individual as a force that leads the person to move in the direction of a goal" (Wlodkowski, 1984, p.59); or as the felt needs or interests as reflected on the well-known surveys and inventories used routinely by practitioners; or as some variation on those themes.

Thomas (1991) says that "learning" is a need and the means to satisfying all other needs. Apps (1979) says that "there is more to need than the idea that something is lacking or absent" (p.117). Sork and Caffarella (1989) point out that by utilizing the discrepancy definition one must accept that value judgments will come into play. In fact, the question of whose value judgments will prevail in determining needs is a sometimes hotly debated issue in needs assessment discussions. Unfortunately, or possibly fortunately, that issue will not be addressed in this presentation. However,

such ambiguities and issues as are summarized here do point to one of the profound problems in doing needs assessing: deciding what constitutes needs. Sork (1988) has said that "It seems clear that at a general level adult educators understand what is meant by 'need' but additional work is required to develop a more specific and less ambiguous definition. Or it may be that several definitions of need will be required to account for the variety of meanings considered essential for developing theory and improving practice" (p.298). This writer and practitioner is skeptical about the first statement and disagrees with the second. We already have "several definitions," and that is part of the problem.

THE ARGUMENT

In the efforts to define and assess needs there is an element which may be a problem so profound as to undermine all of our efforts to get at "needs." That element is our tendency, our "need" if you will, to simplify complex concepts so that we can build models and develop processes that can be managed in a relatively simple manner. In doing that, we may be fragmenting the concept itself so that each definition we devise and each needs assessing process that we develop is only a small piece of the whole, but not recognized as such. The result is that numerous well-meaning theorists put forth definitions and accompanying processes which compete with each other for acceptance as the proper way to define and assess needs, not only in education, but in all social service areas. The fact is that they may all be right and all be wrong at the same time. When any one of these definitions and processes is used, it does produce needs data, and sometimes those data are useful (if they answer some of the right questions for the decision-maker). However, the process produces only small fragments of the total data which describe a learner's needs (say nothing of organizational and societal needs). The data collected are often disappointing because they are taken to be the whole of the needs information required for proper decision-making and yet don't seem to produce good decisions (don't answer some of the important questions about learner behavior). As a result, needs assessing is branded as unreliable at best and useless at worst. If the practitioner happens to pick the particular definition and process which answers the questions which need answering, the needs assessing pays off. If not, it doesn't. The problem is that learner needs are far more complex functions of their life situations, including interactions with organizations and societies, than the typical topic checklists, discrepancy inventories, and course preference surveys imply.

The argument here is essentially that needs assessments, whatever the preferred definition, are generally much too simplistic to produce information that is consistently reliable and useful about the adult learners served by adult education, continuing education, and community education programmers. Each of the existing discrete definitions/techniques for needs assessing gets at only a small part of what learners require and what explains their behavior with respect to learning opportunities. Needs assessing really is (or should be) context evaluation based upon an understanding of the context of needs as a systems phenomenon. All, or virtually all, of the existing approaches to needs assessing can be included in the systems approach, but none of them approximates its capacity to analyze the complexity of the learner's nature and circumstances, a capacity which programmers (decision-makers) need for the variety of decisions they have to make.

What are context evaluation and the systems approach? Paraphrasing Scriven (1991), **context evaluation** focuses on the values, attitudes, and expectations of stakeholders, including the learner, and the social and physical circumstances which do or may influence the learner. A **systems approach** is a way of thinking about wholes and their parts. It views humans in their environments as complex organizations. Life consists of processes or interactions. The key to understanding the behavior of a system (in this case, the learner) is to find and characterize the processes or interactions among the parts or components that characterize the human (learner) in the environment. The procedure is to start with the whole acting system and then move back and forth between the whole and its parts until the whole is understood in terms of the interaction of the parts. Since a system is a set of interacting parts or components, context evaluation identifies the components and the nature of their interactions or interrelationships in order to provide the basis for understanding the "needs" that drive the behavior of a system (learner). **Needs information** comes

from a series of questions used at the end of the analysis process: What needs will influence whether the learner participates? What needs should the instructional process address? What needs will influence whether the learner completes the learning activity successfully? And so forth.

Such a way of understanding the concept of "needs" is consistent with the views of Siegel, Attkisson, and Carson (1978) (as reported in Witkin, 1984): "Needs...are based on values, culture, past history, and experiences of the individual and the community [environment]. Human social-service needs are not singular, easily identifiable entities, but are diffuse and interrelated...needs are dynamic and in a state of constant flux" (p.16).

And therein lies the problem of meaningful, productive needs assessments. Unless we use a procedure which maps the adult learner's system components and their interactions or relationships, we stand little chance of getting close to an understanding of what drives a particular learner and what the learner's needs are. The need for "a new or improved skill" or the need for "transportation" to attend a class, data which we do typically collect in the name of "needs assessment," will far too often be too little information with which to make consistently successful program decisions. Many programmers, of course, have already discovered that this is true and have abandoned needs assessment surveys and the like, in favor of establishing needs on the basis of "who shows up at the first class or meeting," another of those processes whose seductive simplicity makes it seem to be preferable to doing formal needs assessing which is more expensive, more time-consuming, and, in their view, no more productive than offering courses and seeing who shows up. The writer would argue, of course, that in the long run such a "simple" practice is much more expensive than it seems in terms of learner non-participation, learner underachievement, and the failure to serve entire groups of learners to whom adult education programs should be responsible.

A PROPOSED MODEL FOR DEPICTING SYSTEM COMPONENTS

This is to propose the model in Figure 1 as a way of depicting the components that might characterize a particular learner's "system" for purposes of understanding the learner's behavioral pattern(s). In Figure 1, only the component labels are included; the specific nature of the components and their interrelationships need to be identified and mapped in order for the components to be used to evaluate the context of the learner's behavior and establish needs from such a process. It is also worth noting that the components themselves are different for different learners and also different for the same learner at different times in the learner's living and learning.

The layers of the model should be imagined to collapse on each other, suggesting the interaction of components across layers as well as within them. The layers are part of a single system (which might contain other layers not considered in this example). Also, the dimensions, impacts, and interrelationships of components (even the very existence of some components) should be imagined as changing over time, making it necessary for periodic assessments or re-assessments for each learner. Despite the seeming complexity of the proposed model, the writer has satisfied himself that the process proposed here is neither impossible, nor necessarily excessively costly in time or money, depending on the situation.

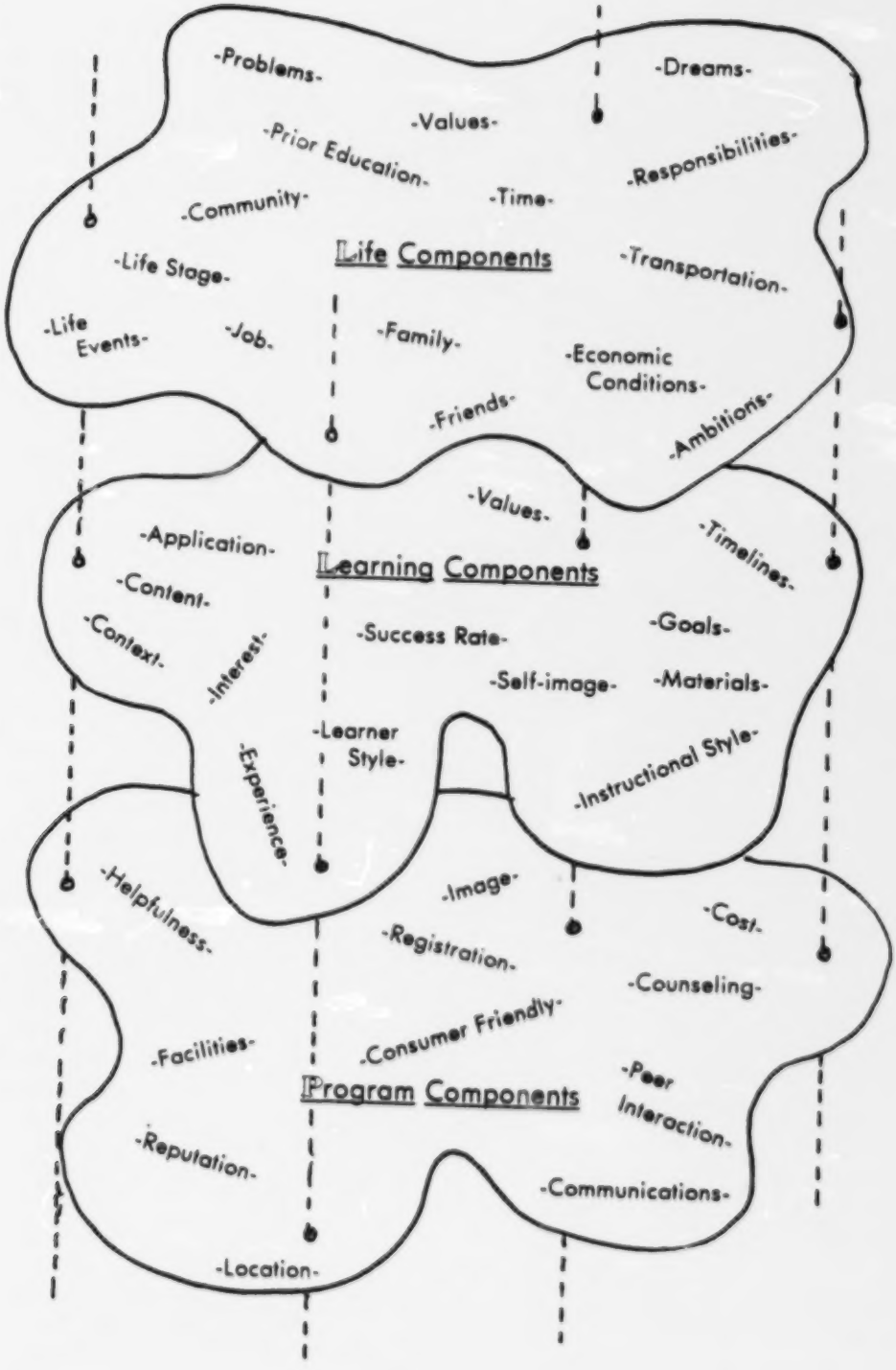

Figure 1
WOOD SYSTEMS-CONTEXT MODEL FOR ANALYZING NEEDS/MOTIVATION

It is contended that this kind of context evaluating to build individual learner models, depicting systems components and interrelationships and leading to needs analysis, is both possible and practical. In fact, building such models is likely to lead to a needs assessment process which naturally supports the counseling of the learner, not only for a particular class or program in question, but also for other learning and life activities. Such a process, where appropriate, would examine discrepancies, felt needs, prescriptive needs, etc., not in isolation but in relation to each other. Indeed, we may be talking about changes in needs assessing which result in profound changes in program development, changes which profit both the learners and practitioners.

AN APPLICATION EXERCISE

Readers who wish to think further about the ideas proposed here may be interested in a trial application using a hypothetical learner described below. The following data are the beginnings of a profile of an adult learner and are suggested for purposes of modeling specific system components for such a learner. The reader should be prepared to add data or data specificity where necessary.

PROFILE OF AN ADULT LEARNER

Sex: (specify)
Age: 36

Marital Status: Married
Children: Girl (age 12) and boy (age 16)

Employment:
- *Blue collar job (specify)
- *Necessary job skills/knowledge levels changing
- *Supervisor/employer has discussed advantages of further education
- *Promotion suggested as a possibility

Income:
- *Barely adequate, virtually no savings
- *Both adults work (clarify, specify)

Values: *Independence *Work *Family *Church/religion *Sports/recreation

Education: *High school diploma (C average) and on-the-job training

Transportation: *One family car (three years old)

Typical Week's Activities:
- *Works daytime, Monday-Friday
- *Watches favorite TV show Monday night
- *Bowling league Tuesday night
- *Church meetings Wednesday night
- *Spouse's night out Thursday night
- *Family time Friday night and weekend
- *Regular church attendance Sundays

Concerns:
- *Long range financial prospects, money
- *Oldest child two years from college (is a good student)
- *Youngest child underachieves
- *Spouse has low life satisfaction symptoms (specify)

Social:
- *Two close friends at work (same education level, same types of jobs, bowlers)
- *With spouse, belongs to local fraternal organization; attends occasional dance

Personality: *Generally personable *Rather quiet *Has stubborn side

Adult Education Program Available:

*Monday-Thursday, mostly evenings
*More capacity for classes, training
*Good reputation, but not well known
*Traditional instructional formats
*Needs assessment surveys distributed throughout the community once per year
*Program information readily available by contacting the adult education office
(add other program details, if desired)

APPLICATION QUESTIONS

What additional system information is needed? (Add it to the profile.)
What components interact and how in this system (case)? How? (Project some interactions.)
Assume the learner in this case will respond to a needs assessment survey distributed at work, checking the need for employment-related education. Will he/she actually enroll and attend? What will determine that?
What needs, if met, will increase the likelihood of further education/training?
What needs, if not met, will seriously limit that likelihood?

SUGGESTED EXTENSION OF APPLICATION PRACTICE

Alter some of the basic profile components so that they describe this learner at a different time or another learner and repeat the analysis. What insights come from this activity?

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